

The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, JUNE 8, 1882.

The Week.

MR. FRELINGHUYSEN has taken up the task of abrogating the Clayton-Bulwer treaty, but much more deftly and effectively than Mr. Blaine. The solid and substantial reason which Mr. Frelinghuysen advances for tearing up the treaty is that the agreement was made thirty years ago with reference to the construction of a canal by the Nicaragua route; that from that time to this no such canal has ever been built; that consequently the engagements of the treaty cannot be considered of binding force on either party. No such treaty can be expected to remain in force forever unexecuted. After thirty years' talk about a canal when there is no canal, the continuance of negotiations for a joint or universal protectorate of it seems idle, and a treaty for the purpose gets to be obsolete. Mr. Frelinghuysen might have made this part of his letter stronger by dwelling less upon the particular route designated by the Clayton-Bulwer treaty, and more upon the failure to construct a canal by any route. The article of the treaty which evidently gave him most trouble was the eighth, which declares that the Governments of the United States and Great Britain, "having not only desired, in entering into this convention, to accomplish a particular object" (to wit, the Nicaragua canal), but also to establish a general principle (that of an international protectorate), "hereby agree to extend their protection by treaty stipulations to any other practicable communication, whether by canal or railway, across the isthmus." It is this provision of the treaty, Mr. Frelinghuysen says, "which has occasioned this correspondence." It is this provision, at any rate, which has occasioned the main difficulty in carrying it on. It does undoubtedly show that in 1850 what we meant to do was to secure the canal, by whatever route it might run, by a general guarantee of the maritime powers. But here, again, there is no canal, and no general guarantee by means of additional "treaty stipulations" has been obtained, although Mr. Fish, only five years ago, made an attempt to carry out this branch of the treaty.

The more Mr. Frelinghuysen's despatch is examined the more clearly will it appear that the gist of his objections to the treaty is that it is a dead letter, owing to the fact that nothing has been done under it, and might as well be treated as such by both Governments. The various other arguments advanced by him do not strengthen his position, but give an opportunity for ingenious counter-arguments, which of course will be beside the point, but for which there was no necessity for making an opening. He says, for instance, that the treaty is "of course voidable at the pleasure of the United States," because Great Britain has been violating it by extending her "sovereignty" in Central America. He says that "the impression prevails that since

the conclusion of the treaty of 1850 the English inhabitants of that district have spread into the territory of the neighboring republics, and now occupy a large area of land which, under the convention, belongs to one or the other of the two republics, but over which the Government of Her Majesty assumes to exercise control. Such dominion seems to be inconsistent with that provision of the treaty which prohibits the exercise of dominion by Great Britain over any part of Central America." This is a strong point, although not absolutely necessary to the argument. If Great Britain is actually doing anything of the kind, she is not merely violating the Clayton-Bulwer treaty, but she is violating the Monroe doctrine, which, according to Mr. Frelinghuysen's own definition of it, "at least opposes any intervention by European nations in the political affairs of American republics." But, as we have already said, the gist of his objections is that the treaty is obsolete. If we desire to withdraw from it, there is no reason why we should not, and Mr. Frelinghuysen's despatch extricates the Government from the awkward position in which Mr. Blaine placed it perhaps as well as could be expected.

We have been hoping for some days to see, in the columns of the *Herald* and *Sun*, something in the nature of a handsome apology to Mr. Lowell for the reproaches they have been heaping upon him for what they were pleased to term his "ignorance" in asking his Government for instructions as to the length of residence in his native country necessary to exhaust the American citizenship of a naturalized citizen. A correspondent of the *Nation* showed last week, in a very neat way, that the rumpus over this was all due to the ignorance of Mr. Lowell's assailants of the history of the expatriation question here, and thus the apology to him became at once due—that is to say, on Friday last. The *Sun* does not make this apology to Mr. Lowell, but tries to excuse itself by saying that what our correspondent showed the other day was simply that the several members of General Grant's Cabinet had expressed the opinion "that a renewal of residence by a naturalized citizen in his mother country should effect a renunciation of his acquired citizenship here." "But our Government," adds the *Sun*, "in its treaties with Great Britain, has never recognized any such view, and this Mr. Lowell ought to have known without making any inquiry of the Secretary of State on the subject." Error and injustice again, *Esteemed Contemporary*. The question on which the members of Grant's Cabinet expressed opinions was not whether the renewal of residence, etc., should "effect a renunciation of citizenship," but whether it should not be considered by this Government a release from the duty of giving its protection through the Army and Navy, and this question does not need a treaty for its decision. Great Britain has nothing to do with its decision. It lies wholly within the discretion of this Government; and when Mr. Lowell asked what view this Government was now taking of its duty in

the matter, he made a perfectly proper and sensible inquiry, and did not fall into the error of supposing, like our contemporary, that we bind ourselves by treaty with foreign powers to give a certain amount or kind of protection to our citizens. We do nothing of the kind. On the contrary, by such treaty we simply bind foreign powers to respect certain claims of ours, if we choose to make them. So that the apology to Mr. Lowell is still due on this head, and we recommend at the same time an apology also for abusing him for asking for the release of the suspects, on condition that they would come home, this also being perfectly justified by our own precedents.

The Western case against Mr. Lowell grows darker every day. He is not only a scholar, a gentleman, and a man of civil demeanor in the transaction of business, who wears his trousers outside his boots, but he has, according to the *Dubuque Herald*, become "liable to severe punishment, under Section 200 of the United States Revised Statutes," which provides that naturalized citizens shall receive the same protection as native-born citizens, and "provides for the punishment of any man guilty of collusion with a foreign government." "The statute," says the *Dubuque publicist*, "renders Lowell liable under this charge to a fine of \$5,000 and imprisonment for three years," which, it justly observes, "is not a very agreeable thing to face." It only remains now, apparently, for the East to ask that in bringing him home for trial proper regard be paid to his age and to the position he has occupied in the United States service, and that he be allowed a cabin to himself, and be spared the indignity of irons, and that the goodness of his clothes, and general neatness of appearance, and his familiarity with English literature, be not used to prejudice his case under the statute. Many of the qualities, it must be remembered, which most damage him in Western eyes are congenital, and it would, therefore, be very un-American to punish him for them, or allow them to aggravate his punishment, in case he is found guilty of a violation of Section 200.

During the week the specie movement between the United States and foreign countries was unimportant, but at the close the indications were that some gold might be shipped for Italian account, particularly as under the recent law the Treasury will pay out fine gold bars on even terms for gold coin, and these bars are in London worth more than the coin. The crops have been the uppermost subject in Wall Street and mercantile circles, as on them to a large extent depend the profits of the railroads and the condition of business for the coming year. The weather has thus far not been favorable for corn. The winter-wheat crop, however, is well assured, and it is not venturesome to say that in quantity and quality it will exceed that of last year. It now looks as if the spring-wheat crop would be no larger than last year. The extensive strikes in the iron trade, the causes of which

we have discussed on another page, have had a depressing effect in all directions. The stock market was given over to the tender mercies of the bears, who raided one stock after another, and effected a decline ranging from 1@10½ points. United States bonds declined ¼@½. The New York banks lost about \$250,000 of their surplus reserve, but the loan market was very easy at low rates for borrowers. The bill which passed both branches of the Legislature, permitting call loans to be made at any rate agreed upon by the lender and borrower, became a law without the signature of Governor Cornell, who, however, had recommended such a law. This bill will, when money becomes worth 6 per cent., prevent rates from going up by jumps, as heretofore; instead of this we may expect to see the rate advance by half of 1 per cent. per annum—for instance, from 6 to 6½ per cent. Under the old law the next rate above 6 per cent. was 6 per cent. plus 1-64 of 1 per cent. per day, or about 11½ per cent. per annum. General trade is unquestionably dull: collections, however, are fair, and credits are not extended.

The recent exportation of some millions of gold from this country has led to numerous ejaculations in the press against the extravagance of our people, and to earnest suggestions that they ought not to buy so many things, especially foreign things. Exhortations of this sort may be very good for the moral nature of man, but they have no value in the discussion of questions of political economy. Convince a man that he cannot buy the article of luxury he wants, and you will make an impression upon him sufficiently strong to prevent him from buying it, but to argue with him that although he is perfectly able to have it, yet his buying it will lead to an exportation of gold, and that this will be a bad thing for some other person or persons, will, in nine cases out of ten, lead him to suspect that you are a little out of your mind. He will be perfectly content if you make your observations general, taking in whole classes of society, and especially if you point to the growing extravagance of bricklayers and boiler-makers and their wives. But to make a personal application to him, and to adduce a column of Treasury statistics to prove that he ought not to smoke such expensive cigars, and that his wife ought not to wear such costly bonnets, is in his view a gross impertinence. Even if he assents to the proposition that "national extravagance" is a bad thing, and that something ought to be done about it, he reasons that his abstinence would not amount to a drop in the bucket, and he reasons correctly. He may not carry the logical process so far as to conclude that if the individuals composing the nation can afford to live on a particular scale, the nation itself can afford it, but he will be pretty sure to resent any suggestion that he is responsible for the exportation of gold, even if he admits that the exportation of gold is a bad thing *per se*. And this he will do, whether his station in life be that of a banker or of a hod-carrier. There is no objection to the continuance of exhortations on this theme, but as they have

never yielded any results heretofore, they will yield none now.

In response to a summons from Mr. Conkling, his friends who urged him to be a candidate for reelection after his resignation, and to go to Albany for that purpose, have at last come forth. The *Herald* publishes letters from seven of them which agree in representing their sentiments as to what Mr. Conkling should do at the time, as unanimous. They agree also in stating that, at a sort of council of war held at General Arthur's house in this city, General Sharpe, who now says that he did not urge Mr. Conkling at all, was particularly fervid in advising that he should stand for a reelection and go to Albany to manage his canvass. Whether General Sharpe will try to invalidate the testimony thus accumulating against him, and how he will try to do it, we are very curious to see. The public learn now, also, who it was that Mr. Conkling advised with when he was engaged in the greatest effort of his life. The meeting of which the letters speak took place in Vice-President Arthur's house. Present were Senator Jones, from Nevada, ex-Senator "Tom" Platt, United States Marshal "Lew" Payn, Mr. John F. Smyth, of Insurance Department fame, Police Commissioner "Steve" French, Mr. C. W. Dennison, an old "canal man," Mr. A. B. Johnson, of Utica, Mr. Conkling's faithful committee-man, and General Sharpe. This was the council of statesmen whose advice Mr. Conkling took when he did the foolish thing ever done by an American politician.

The Senate has confirmed another appointment of an internal-revenue collector in Pennsylvania, made at the request of Senator Cameron, to fill a place vacated by the removal of an unusually meritorious officer, without the slightest pretence of a cause. The removal, of course also at the request of Senator Cameron, was made against a protest signed by 8,000 respectable business men of the district. The arguments with which Mr. Cameron is reported to have defended that removal in the Senate were very characteristic. He admitted that the removed officer had performed his duties in a very efficient manner; but it was absurd to suppose, he said, that no other man of integrity, capacity, and character would make just as efficient a collector. According to this, Mr. Cameron would make it a rule that as long as there is a man of integrity, capacity, and character in the district, the office must be kept going round and round, for it would not do to permit any individual to get warm in the place and to become thoroughly conversant with its duties. This is a jolly view of what a well-regulated public service should be. But everybody knows that Boss Cameron did not ask for the removal of the meritorious officer for the purpose of putting in a man of equal integrity, capacity, and character, but for the purpose of securing the power and influence of that office for one of his political henchmen, and that, if that henchman is at the same time an able and respectable man, it is a lucky accident. However, the Senate took Mr. Cameron's view of the case, confirmed his nominee, and thereby made the rupture in the Republican party in Pennsylvania still more

incurable. Mr. Cameron had ostensibly accepted the "peace platform," which provided that there should be no removals from office without cause. By insisting upon a removal without the slightest cause, against the emphatic protest of the business community interested in the case, Mr. Cameron has only given new proof of his bad faith and poured a little more oil into the flame.

Mr. Blaine has declined an invitation from his friends in Maine to become the Republican candidate "for Congressman-at-large" in that State. The principal reason he gives is that, in justice to those who have even a stronger claim upon him than the "great constituency" in Maine, he has to devote himself to his "long-neglected private affairs." This reason may be quite true and sufficient in itself, but it is also true that his election as Congressman-at-large, if he accepted the candidacy, would be an exceedingly doubtful thing. And this Mr. Blaine knows very well. He has undoubtedly a large number of enthusiastic friends among the Republicans of Maine, but also a great many very determined opponents, not confined to the Democratic or Greenback party, who would work hard to defeat him. And their numerical strength and influence are so large that Mr. Blaine would not only not be the strongest, but one of the weakest candidates the Republicans of Maine could nominate. It would be highly inexpedient for Mr. Blaine to expose himself to a defeat which would finish his political prospects.

The temperance question has been making a world of trouble for the Republican managers in Ohio, and is now leaving them very much in the position of the Old Man and his Ass. The Legislature recently passed the Pond Liquor Law, which compelled every dealer not only to take out an expensive license, but to give a bond. This seemed likely to secure the temperance vote, which amounts to about 16,000, even if it alienated the German vote. But now the Supreme Court has declared the act unconstitutional, so that there is nothing to offer the temperance men in the way of legislation, and they ask for more in the way of declaration than any party dare give. In the meantime the Germans are so much exasperated by the law that its nullification by the courts does not satisfy them, and they are disaffected to the party on the ground of radical unsoundness on this issue. The Republican Convention meets as we go to press, and it is very difficult to devise anything effective for the platform. The prospect is said to be rendered all the more gloomy by the widespread dissatisfaction caused by the apparent "proscription" of the Garfield officeholders by President Arthur. The "war" which he has been carrying on against these gentlemen may be fun for him, but it is a serious matter for Republicans who have to carry State elections without the assistance of "the boys" in New York.

The Roman Catholic Bishop of Cleveland is at odds with some of the women of his diocese. It seems that the Parnell Land League there has a ladies' branch. Bishop Gilmour has his own views of Irish wrongs and reme-

dies, and, in "a card" to the *Catholic Universe*, refers to his "late lecture" on the subject. Difference of opinion in this matter, however, is not the cause of the trouble. He intimates that if the local Land League had "confined itself to male membership," there would have been no difficulty. But as it tolerates a female branch, he denounces "the presidentess thereof" and her associates as "brawling politicians"; and his "card" concludes with a formal excommunication of these women and all others who shall attend any of their meetings. He denies them the guidance and consolation of the Church, not because they advise tenants not to pay rent, or encourage them to shoot their landlords, or because they have opposed the Land Act or connived at the Dublin murders, but because they hold meetings for the discussion of the Irish question at all. When they do this they become "brawling politicians," and "assume the brazen unwomanliness of female politicians." "Female modesty must be maintained," exclaims the Bishop, "let the cost be what it may!" "Woman must be woman," must "live within the modesty of the family circle," must "not be tainted with the noisy brawl of the virago." It will be seen that something more than the Irish question is involved here. According to the Bishop's card, any Roman Catholic woman who attends a public meeting, for the discussion of any subject whatever, becomes a "brawling politician" and a "virago," and incurs the penalty of excommunication.

The most curious "correction" probably ever addressed to the press has come from the pen of Mrs. Dunmire, Guiteau's former wife. She desires, she says, to participate in any movement that may be made to procure a commutation of his sentence, and wishes to say that "we"—presumably she and her present husband—"are not in favor of him being hung," the newspaper reports to the contrary notwithstanding. This is a very tender but very unusual mode of recognizing the force of old, though long dissolved, matrimonial associations, and it must touch Guiteau, hardened though he be.

At the Ministers' Conference of the Baptist Church in this city on Monday, the Rev. William Harris, of St. Joseph, Mo., sought to exonerate the Missouri Baptists from the charge of sympathy and fellowship with Jesse James. He denied that James was a Baptist church member at the time of his death, but admitted that he had been one, and that his father had been a Baptist minister, and that his mother was a Baptist church member now, but maintained that all good Missouri Baptists were glad of his death, though they did not like to have him killed in the way "the Ford boys" killed him. He had himself refused to perform services over his body at St. Joseph, and the task was performed by another minister elsewhere, who had, however, refrained from eulogizing the defunct. We cannot help thinking that a minister, Baptist or other, who, on such an occasion, spoke his mind out freely about the defunct, and painted him as the dreadful scoundrel and cut-throat that he really was, would not only perform his simple duty as a minister, but greatly improve the occasion.

We admit, however, that such a discourse would in Missouri perhaps lead to a row among the mourners, which might either compel the minister to fly precipitately or resort to the arm of flesh for his own protection.

Despatches from Quincy, Illinois, report the shooting of Dr. Hoffman, editor of the *Germania*, by Dr. Spear and "the Hellhake boys," but do not make the motives of the crime as clear as could be wished. It seems that the article which "is supposed to have led to the shooting speaks kindly of all the persons mentioned in it." A eulogistic editorial notice of this kind seldom leads to murder in the East, and it is difficult to see why it should in Illinois. The publicity of praise may be disagreeable to persons of extremely sensitive natures, and a friendly puff may be so exaggerated as to cause pain; but the account given of the two Hellhakes does not show them to be "boys" of exaggerated sensibility, or, in fact, different from other Illinois "boys." To the sociologist such cases look as if crime in the West was produced by different causes and governed by different laws from those which exist in other parts of the Union.

Franklin J. Moses, some time Governor of South Carolina, has been sent to the Penitentiary for six months, for petty larceny. It is only ten years since he was in office, with the United States Army and Navy at his back, and defending himself against arrest on judicial process with a guard of negro militia, and enjoying the support of a considerable portion of the Republican press at the North. His career furnishes a deplorable example of the kind of white man which the social revolution at the South brought into prominence after the war. Most of the others have disappeared into obscurity, and are only too glad to be forgotten. Moses was less lucky or less shrewd, and had the misfortune to be a drunkard. He has led a precarious existence as a petty swindler here for several years, but impunity made him too bold. It is, however, pleasant to remember that he was not a Northerner or a carpet-bagger. This unique specimen of a Governor was a native South Carolinian and an ardent Secessionist, and bore a prominent part in the attack on Fort Sumter. He then became a "repentant Rebel," but appears to have repented too rapidly and too much.

The new Tichborne claimant, who has been getting up his case in California, is going over to England very soon to establish his right to the title and estates. His backers are a gardener named Lane and two "Catholic instructors," with whom, however, he has not yet had an interview. His case therefore cannot be considered as carefully prepared, and is not so strong at the outset as that of the original claimant, who was recognized as Sir Roger by the latter's mother. On the other hand, he is said to be a "highly educated man," and his claims upon our interest are heightened by the fact that he is a "one-handed man," having lost one of his hands as a soldier in a New York regiment during the Rebellion. When a one-handed soldier crosses the ocean to assert his rights against the aristocracy of England, the judges,

the Lord Chancellor, and the Queen, supported by her land and naval forces, backed only by a gardener and possibly two Catholic instructors, we cannot but sympathize with him quite as deeply as we have done with McEnery and Dr. Lamson in their trials. Is he not entitled to have his case pressed by our Government?

The Repression Bill is being pushed steadily through the Committee of the Whole in the House of Commons, all attempts of the Home Rulers to amend it having been defeated by heavy majorities. Thus far, however, it is only the constitution of the new courts, and the inclusion of treason-felony and treason committed on foreign soil in their jurisdiction, which have been the objects of attack. When the clauses are reached which give the Lord Lieutenant and the magistrates power to suppress newspapers and public meetings, the onslaughts of the Irish will undoubtedly come nearer success, if they do not attain it, as there is a strong dislike of these provisions among the English Radicals. In the debate, Sir William Harcourt, whose discomfiture the House always enjoys, seems to have got the worst of it in a set-to with Mr. Healy. He made the very extravagant statement that the clause making treason committed on foreign soil justiciable in Ireland was necessary to meet such cases as O'Donovan Rossa's, who ought to be punished even if he had only one reader on the other side of the water. This gave Healy the opportunity of saying that O'Donovan Rossa was as necessary to Sir William Harcourt as Sir William to O'Donovan Rossa, in which there is a great deal of truth. O'Donovan Rossa owes much of the prosperity of his paper and his own notoriety to his having apparently shaken the nerves of the English Home Secretary, and, on the other hand, whenever Sir William is hard up for an argument in favor of Irish coercion he always says, "Look at O'Donovan Rossa."

The solution of the Egyptian problem has made very little progress. The conference of the Powers will probably soon be held, but the date is not fixed, and the Sultan has issued a circular opposing it *in toto*, on the ground that it is not necessary, inasmuch as he will settle the whole matter himself, if permitted. His dislike of European conferences is quite comprehensible, inasmuch as they rarely meet without stripping him of something or imposing some new and disagreeable duty on him. He has sent orders to Arabi Bey to stop throwing up earthworks around Alexandria, which he has been doing, it appears, within five hundred yards of the British and French fleets. The Admirals have, however, been somewhat indifferent to the process, knowing that Arabi has no guns to arm the works with, which could survive a single broadside from the ships. But he is enjoying a certain appearance of power and impunity, owing to the fear of the British and French that if they employed force against him, even on a small scale, it would expose the foreigners at Cairo to a popular Mussulman outbreak, which would certainly endanger their property and might endanger their lives.

SUMMARY OF THE WEEK'S NEWS.

DOMESTIC.

THE great strike of the members of the Amalgamated Association of Iron and Steel-Workers was fairly begun on Thursday. The morning of that day found twenty-six iron rolling-mills of Pittsburgh silent, and 25,000 workmen out of employment. Despatches from Milwaukee, Cincinnati, Chicago, and many other cities announced that the strike had also begun in those places. The Association professes to have a million dollars in the treasury at Pittsburgh. The proprietor of one of the mills at Pittsburgh which was closed by the strike, and who is said to be one of the best-informed men in the business, was interviewed on Friday, and is reported to have said that he thought the strikers would succeed, for the reason that the manufacturers were not prepared to fight the Association, and there was no union among them.

The total number of immigrants that arrived in New York during the month of May was 86,677, as against 78,359 for the same period in 1881. The total number of arrivals since January 1 was 227,325, an increase of 39,843 over the corresponding period of last year. Of those arriving during the month of May, the Germans take the lead, with 30,047, followed by the Irish, with 13,453.

A request having been made that the eight-hour law should be enforced in the Navy-yards, Attorney-General Brewster has written an opinion on the matter, taking the ground that the existing laws on the subject are conflicting and defective, and that further legislation is required. It is understood that the President will send a special message to Congress on the subject.

The Army Appropriation Bill was passed by the Senate on Tuesday. The compulsory-retirement clause makes the retiring age sixty-four years.

In further compliance with the Senate's resolution of December 12 of last year, calling for copies of the instructions to our Minister in London, in regard to the proposed modification of the Clayton-Bulwer treaty, the President, on Monday, submitted to the Senate a copy of a despatch sent by the Secretary of State to Mr. Lowell and dated May 8, 1882. The points made in the despatch are in substance as follows: 1st, the Clayton-Bulwer treaty is no longer binding upon the United States, because England herself has violated its provisions. The treaty forbade both the United States and Great Britain to extend their authority in Central America. This stipulation England violated in the case of Honduras; 2d, the great object of the treaty was to hasten the construction of a canal on the Nicaragua route. This object failed, and therefore all agreements with Nicaragua concerning the maintenance of neutrality have ceased to be in force, and cannot be revived for the benefit of any other scheme. In regard to the suggestion made by Lord Granville, in his note of January 7, that the United States should take the initiative in an invitation to other Powers to participate in an agreement based upon the Convention of 1850, Mr. Frelinghuysen says that the President "is constrained by the considerations already presented to say that the United States cannot take part in extending such an invitation, and to state with entire frankness that the United States would look with disfavor upon an attempt at a concert of political action by other Powers in that direction."

The consideration of the Mackey-Dibble contested-election case was resumed in the House of Representatives on Wednesday. The resolution from the Committee on Elections declaring Mackey entitled to the seat was finally adopted. On Thursday, the contested-election case from the Second Florida District was called up, and Mr. Bisbee, the Republican candidate, was seated by a vote of 141 to 9. On Friday the Lowe-Wheeler case from the Eighth Alabama District was taken up and

the day consumed in its discussion. On Saturday Mr. Lowe, the Republican candidate, was declared entitled to the seat, by a vote of 149 to 3.

An exhaustive report was made to the House of Representatives on Tuesday in response to a resolution intimating that undue influence and haste were used in passing the Bonded Spirits Bill. The report denies that the bill was passed hastily, and says that the Commissioner of Internal Revenue made no suggestions except when asked to do so by the Committee.

On Tuesday, on motion of Mr. Kasson, the House unanimously adopted resolutions eulogizing General Garibaldi, and expressing sympathy with Italy in her bereavement.

A memorial was presented to the House on Monday from the American Meteorological Society and others, with regard to the establishment of standard time. The memorial asks that Congress adopt such measures as may be necessary to bring about an international conference for the purpose of selecting a prime meridian and securing its universal adoption as a standard of reference for the regulation of local time.

A Republican caucus will be held on Wednesday evening, to decide on a programme of business for the rest of the Congressional session.

The President has approved the act for the reestablishment of the Court of Commissioners of Alabama Claims and for the distribution of the unappropriated moneys of the Geneva Award.

The President has spent most of the week in New York, and is reported to have had consultations with the leading politicians of the State, preparatory to the nomination of Secretary Folger for Governor, and the inauguration of a campaign to be conducted on strict Stalwart principles.

A despatch to the New York *Tribune* on Tuesday stated that the renewed rumors of Mr. Lowell's return are without foundation, and that there is excellent authority for saying that Mr. Lowell has not been recalled and has not resigned, and that no name is being considered for his place.

A large number of prominent and influential Maine Republicans, aggregating several thousands in all, addressed a letter, dated May 18, to Mr. Blaine, asking him to consent to be nominated for Congressman-at-large from that State. On Saturday Mr. Blaine wrote in reply that "neglected private affairs, from which I cannot at this time turn aside, except with injustice to those who have even a stronger claim upon me than the great constituency which in all these years has honored me with an earnest support and unwavering confidence," would make it impossible for him to consent to the use of his name.

The Fusion Greenback Convention met at Bangor, Maine, on Thursday, and chose a State Committee, and nominated Harris M. Plaisted for Governor.

A majority and a minority report in the matter of Judge Westbrook, of the Supreme Court of New York, were presented to the Assembly by the Judiciary Committee, which has had charge of the investigation of the Judge's acts, on Wednesday. The majority report "whitewashed" him, and the minority report recommended that he be impeached. The former was adopted by a vote of 77 to 35. This action of the Assembly has aroused a great outcry throughout the State. The Legislature, which adjourned on Friday, has earned, in the opinion of many, the reputation of being the most corrupt and dishonest Legislature since the days of Tweed's ascendancy.

The Rhode Island Legislature has passed resolutions appropriating \$10,000 for an equestrian statue of General Burnside to be erected in Providence, provided \$20,000 is raised by private subscription. \$7,500 was also appropriated for a statue of Commodore Perry, to be erected in Newport. The Legislature will

meet on June 13 to elect Senator Henry B. Anthony to the Senate.

A committee of the Louisiana House of Representatives has reported strongly against legalizing any more lottery companies, and, in the Senate, a proposed amendment to the Constitution, abolishing all lottery charters, passed two readings by a vote of 22 to 12.

General Sherman has submitted to the Secretary of War the report of a board appointed to investigate the loss in lives and property caused by the recent Indian outbreak in Arizona. From this report it appears that forty-two persons were killed and five wounded. The depredations committed, as reported to the board by citizens, involved a loss to stock and other property of about \$30,250.

General Fuero, commander of the Mexican troops at Chihuahua, with four hundred Mexican cavalry, surprised and attacked a band of renegade Apaches, early on the morning of the 25th of May, near Bosque de Santiago. Thirty-seven Indians were killed and ten taken prisoners, and the entire camp outfit, including fifty head of stock, was captured. This is the second time that Mexican troops have inflicted severe loss on the Apaches, who are reported to be much demoralized, and will probably now keep quiet for some time.

Bishop Gilmour, of the Cleveland Catholic diocese, issued a card to the ladies of the Land League of Cleveland, threatening their excommunication unless they renounced all relations to the League. The ladies refused to comply, and "in plain words told the Bishop to mind his own business." On Sunday, the President of the Ladies' Land League offered for publication an open letter to Bishop Gilmour, in which she upholds the righteousness of the cause the Land League is engaged in, flings defiance at the Bishop, and wishes to know how "one Bishop, without authority from the fountain-head of the Church, can excommunicate any individual or society engaged in the freedom of their native land?" Bishop Gilmour not only refuses to answer this inquiry, but goes so far as to say that he will take no cognizance of it whatever.

The proposition which was made to remove the body of Thomas Jefferson from the old grave-yard at Monticello and place it in a cemetery in Washington has met with such widespread opposition in Virginia that it is extremely unlikely that the plan will be carried out.

A new Atlantic Cable Company has been formed, with a capital of \$10,000,000. The general route of the line of telegraph is from New York city to some point convenient upon the coast of the United States, and thence to the coast of Portugal, Spain, or France.

Lieutenant Danenhower, of the *Jeannette*, has been directed to prepare at his leisure a detailed account of his experiences after separating from Engineer Melville.

The long-postponed Star-route trials were finally begun on Thursday. In the matter of challenging the jurors, the Court ruled that the prosecution was entitled to only three peremptory challenges, while each of the defendants was entitled to four, making a total of twenty-eight. Mr. George Bliss opened for the Government on Friday, and concluded his argument on Monday.

Mr. Reed, counsel for Guiteau, presented a petition to the District Supreme Court at Washington, on Friday, asking for a rehearing of the case of his client. The application was on purely technical grounds. On Monday the Court delivered its opinion, refusing to grant the petition. The Judges declare that a reargument would bring them to no other conclusion than that which they have already arrived at. On Tuesday, in the Criminal Court, Mr. Reed read a motion that the record and judgment in the case be amended so as to show that President Garfield did not die in the District of Columbia as alleged. Judge Wylie denied the motion.

Franklin J. Moses, ex-Governor of South Carolina, was sentenced in New York on Tuesday to six months in the Penitentiary, for obtaining money on false pretences.

FOREIGN.

The event of the week in Europe has been the death of General Giuseppe Garibaldi, which occurred on Friday at his home on the island of Caprea. The event created a profound sensation throughout Italy. In Rome all the performances in the theatres were stopped when the news arrived. In the Italian Chamber of Deputies on Saturday President Farini delivered a panegyric on the deceased patriot, while the whole House remained standing. Bills were passed postponing the national fête until June 18, decreeing funeral honors, voting a monument to his memory, and pensions to his wife and children. Both the Senate and Chamber then adjourned. The French Chamber of Deputies also adjourned, as a sign of mourning. Movements are on foot in many Italian cities to erect monuments to Garibaldi's memory. The body, in accordance with the will of the deceased, is to be cremated on Wednesday, and the funeral will be attended by deputations from the Senate and Chamber of Deputies and the municipality of Rome, and representatives of the King and Ministry. Victor Hugo has accepted the honorary Presidency of the funeral, but has telegraphed that he cannot be present on account of his great age.

On Thursday it was announced that the representatives in Constantinople of all the Powers had counselled the Sultan to comply with the demand of the French and British Governments for a declaration by the Sultan in favor of the Khedive, and summoning the leaders of the *émeute* to Constantinople. The Porte sent a letter to Arabi Bey warning him that he would be held personally responsible for the preservation of order and the safety of the European residents. Arabi then issued circulars to the consuls, repeating his assurances that the European residents were safe. On Sunday a Turkish Commission sailed for Egypt with the object of endeavoring to effect a reconciliation between the Khedive and Arabi Bey, and the Porte sent a circular to its representatives abroad, expressing the opinion that the proposed conference of the Powers is no longer called for, as the Commission sent to Egypt will be sufficient to restore order. Meanwhile the aspect of affairs in Egypt has not changed much. Arabi Bey is doing his utmost to strengthen his position by sending out circulars denouncing the Khedive, organizing the Army, and deporting to the Sudan prominent persons hostile to him. The troops in the barracks at Cairo have held excited meetings, demanding that Halim Pasha be proclaimed Khedive. Arabi Bey has been throwing up earthworks and fortifying Alexandria. The British Government protested to the Sultan against these military preparations, and the latter telegraphed the Khedive to request Arabi Bey to discontinue them, but the telegram is said to have come too late, as the fortifications at Alexandria were already completed. The English and French fleets at Alexandria have been strengthened by recent arrivals, and the English commander is said now to be able to land 1,000 men in case of an emergency. The general feeling that the Porte has been playing a double part, secretly encouraging Arabi Bey while pretending to support the Khedive, has been strengthened by the events of the week. Arabi Bey openly boasts that he has been supported in his course by the Turkish Government.

The news from Egypt on Tuesday was that a meeting of the military leaders had been held at Arabi Bey's house, at which it was decided to observe an expectant attitude until the Turkish Commissioners had disclosed the Sultan's intentions. Should the Sultan attempt to maintain the present Khedive in power, the military party are said to be resolved to wreak vengeance on the Khedive, even at the cost of

their lives. Advices from Constantinople state that the German Ambassador, after an audience with the Sultan on Tuesday, informed Lord Dufferin that the Sultan would sustain the Khedive loyally and energetically.

In the House of Commons on Thursday the Government made some statements on the Egyptian situation. Sir Charles Dilke, in reply to a question, said the Government, at the suggestion of France, had agreed to invite the other Powers to a conference for the settlement of the Egyptian question on the basis of the *status quo*. The Government, he said, had on February 6 proposed to M. de Freycinet to take the other Powers into their confidence. Mr. Gladstone said that what was feared by the European residents in Egypt, as likely to endanger their safety, was European military intervention. The Government considered itself pledged to uphold the present Khedive, because he had, so far as they could judge, behaved with perfect honor and good faith. In regard to the question of Turkish intervention, Mr. Gladstone said that it, rather than European intervention, was desirable, because there was danger that the latter would inflame fanaticism.

In a debate on the same day in the French Chamber of Deputies, on the Egyptian question, M. de Freycinet defended the proposed European concert; any other course, he said, must lead to complications. The idea of French military intervention had no place in the Government's plans. M. Gambetta said he could not hear without a protest that France would not intervene, and M. de Freycinet then explained that he meant France would never agree to cut the Egyptian question by her own isolated action, but that in entering the European concert she had accepted the duties which the decisions of Europe might entail. An order of the day expressing confidence in the Government was then adopted by a vote of 298 to 70.

In the debate on the release of the suspects in the House of Lords on Monday evening, Lord Cowper, who was Lord Lieutenant of Ireland when the Irish members of Parliament were released, said that he had only signed the order for their release after obtaining an understanding that his action should be considered as a mere matter of official routine. He believed that the opinion of the educated classes was against the release, as the sudden manner in which it was effected gave the matter the appearance of a complete surrender to disorder.

Lord Spencer, on receiving a deputation from the Corporation of Limerick on Tuesday, the 30th, said he trusted shortly to be able to release the last of the suspects. Christopher Palles, Lord Chief Baron of the Exchequer in Ireland, in opening the Dublin Commission on Friday, said that fifty-six per cent. of the crimes in the city, and seventy per cent. of those in the country were undetected—a matter for grave reflection. As to the Phoenix Park murders, he understood there was no chance of bringing the perpetrators to justice. Mr. Brennan, Secretary of the Land League, who was released from prison on Friday, delivered a violent address in Kilkenny immediately after his release, in which he said his real jailers were Gladstone, Bright, Chamberlain, "and the whole crowd of pseudo-humanitarians and renegade Republicans who compose the British Cabinet." He hoped if the 800 suspects were called on for real sacrifice, they would be ready, if necessary, to die for their country.

Mr. Sexton, Member of Parliament for Sligo, addressing his constituents, said that the land movement had wrung the Land Act from a reluctant and ignorant legislature. He violently condemned the Repression Bill, and, in reference to the alien clauses, he expressed doubt whether the relations between England and the United States were so friendly as to make it worth while for the former to embitter them still further. The Irish party, he

said, felt it their duty to meet the bill with stern and resolute opposition. There were no splits in the party, and the triumph of the land movement in a year or two was certain.

Messrs. Davitt and Dillon will sail for New York on Thursday next.

The House of Commons went into committee on the Repression Bill on Friday. The treason-felony clause was the subject of a warm discussion. Sir William Harcourt said the clause would apply only to offences committed after the passage of the act. Mr. Parnell said that this statement was satisfactory as far as it went, but that political offences ought to be entirely excluded from the bill. After further discussion a vote was taken on the amendment, excluding cases of treason or treason-felony from those to be tried by the Special Commission Courts, and the amendment was lost by a vote of 70 to 227, but about forty Liberals voted with the minority. Various other amendments were offered by members of the Irish party, but were all rejected. On Monday evening debate on the bill was resumed. In the course of the discussion, several Irish members expressed the wish that the Special Commission Courts be precluded from trying prisoners for treason in consequence of words spoken or written in a foreign country, but Sir William Harcourt insisted that British subjects who in England or elsewhere counselled invasion of England, or committed treasonable acts, ought on coming within the jurisdiction of England to be made amenable for such counsels or acts. The House, by a vote of 138 to 25, approved the Home Secretary's views. Mr. Parnell made a speech in which he said the Phoenix Park murders had produced a desire to assist in the enforcement of the law, but this feeling disappeared when the Repression Bill was introduced. He declared that the bill would tend to increase outrages. A division was then taken on the first clause of the bill, and it was passed in committee by a vote of 227 to 37. The second clause of the bill, which provides for appeal from Special Commission Courts to the Court of Criminal Appeal, was then adopted unanimously. The House in Committee passed the third clause, prescribing the manner of the constitution of the Court of Criminal Appeal, on Tuesday, by a vote of 82 to 29.

Great excitement is said to prevail in India over an order issued by the Marquis of Hartington, Secretary of State for India, for the immediate repeal of the Petroleum Act of 1881, and the substitution thereof of a new act allowing the importation of any oil, subject to the orders of the Viceroy. The Chamber of Commerce of Calcutta has presented an address to the Government, strongly deprecating the Marquis of Hartington's measure. The Indian Government will take a week to consider the matter.

A despatch from Vienna says that Herr von Kallay has accepted the portfolio of Imperial Minister of Finance with the Administration of Bosnia and Herzegovina.

In Committee of the French Chamber of Deputies on the appropriation for Tunis, M. de Freycinet said the policy of the Government was not the annexation of Tunis, but the establishment of a protectorate as defined by the Bardo treaty.

The *Napoléon*, the organ of Prince Jérôme Napoleon in Paris, has suspended publication on account of a lack of popular support. Prince Napoleon has written a final letter to the editor, declaring that his sons will always represent true Napoleonic doctrines "despite perfidious appeals to the worst sentiments." This is supposed to refer to M. Paul de Cassagnac's efforts to secure the recognition of Prince Victor as the head of the Bonapartist party, to the exclusion of Prince Napoleon.

The Princess Louise arrived in Quebec on Sunday night on the steamer *Sarmatian*. She was received with much enthusiasm and appeared to be in good health.

THE CROPS AND THE STRIKES.

THAT the present disturbances in industry, especially in the iron and cotton trades, are directly traceable to the deficient crops of last year, there seems little reason to doubt. Everywhere the strikers complain that they cannot live on the wages they are getting. Money wages have not been reduced except in a very few cases, but the cost of living has increased. The wages will not go so far in procuring the necessities of life as last year and the year before. On the other hand, the employers say that the market for their products has fallen off, that they cannot sell at last year's prices, and that to pay higher wages under such conditions is impossible. There is good ground for believing that both are correct. There being less to divide this year than last year or the year before, the parties to the division must take less. Struggle with each other as they may, they cannot increase the sum total of their share of the nation's wealth; therefore, they can add nothing to the two halves of it by strikes or lock-outs. Last year's drought inflicted an enormous loss upon the country. Wide as our area is, no part of it wholly escaped the visitation. It fell upon the wheat, the corn, the cotton, the hay, the potato, and the fruits. Everything that depends upon the rainfall was shrunken and diminished. Some of our richest agricultural districts did not produce enough grain and meat for their own consumption.

The principal difference between British and American manufacturing industry is that the former has for its customers the population of the whole world, while the latter restricts itself as far as possible to the population of the United States. It results from this difference that a bad harvest in the British Islands, although a serious curtailment of the national resources, has little effect upon other industries than agriculture. In the United States, on the other hand, a bad harvest falls with blighting effect upon every other trade. Our iron trade is prostrate to-day and our iron-workers are on strike because the crops of 1881 were below the average. The dependence of the one upon the other, or rather the dependence of all the others upon agriculture, explains why every man of business is now straining his eyes and ears to catch the latest information regarding the growing crops. Too much wetness, too much dryness, too much cold, too much heat, the chinch-bug, the grasshopper, the cotton worm, the army worm, rust and blight, pleuro-pneumonia, and hog cholera—whatever plays havoc with fields and pastures, has for us an interest transcending every other interest, because we all feel and know that our bread and butter is made at home, and that if agriculture comes short, everything else must come short. Broadly speaking, we have no other resource.

The harvest of Great Britain is grown in Minnesota, California, Russia, Hungary, India, Canada, Australia, and Egypt, as well as in England and Ireland. Too much rain or too little in one country affects her but slightly, because the area of her wheat fields is co-extensive with the earth. The bread of her iron-workers, her spinners and weavers, her sailors, her craftsmen of every sort, is grown

as well in Illinois, or in Spain, or in Poland, as in Hampshire or in Berkshire. The failure of crops in one country, while never a matter of indifference, causes her the least possible harm because she does not depend upon one country. Freedom of trade has virtually annexed to her all the wheat fields of the world, and it makes no difference to her manufacturers and artisans whether her food is produced at home or abroad. In the years 1878, 1879, and 1880, she had three bad harvests in succession. Her landowners and farmers were severely pinched, but her prosperity in the aggregate was scarcely impaired, because her wheat fields in Western America and other parts of the globe yielded abundantly. Three as bad harvests in the United States coming in succession would demolish every branch of industry between the Atlantic and the Pacific, except those of petroleum and the precious metals, and, in place of strikes, we should probably have bread riots of the most alarming description.

Why does Great Britain, with her limited area and uncertain climate, possess such advantage over us that the vicissitudes of seasons affect her lightly while they put us in the gravest peril? Plainly because she is able to offer to those who have an abundance of food when she has a scarcity, more of the things they want—more pounds of iron, more yards of cloth, greater quantities of manufactures in general—than we can. Her superiority consists neither in natural resources, nor in native or acquired skill, nor in accumulated capital. Our natural resources are, upon the whole, greater than hers; our skill is equal, and our accumulated capital, if not as great, is sufficient, and more than sufficient, for all purposes of competition with her. With 281 iron furnaces out of blast at this time (as the *Tribune* informs us), there cannot be any lack of capital to carry on the iron business. On the contrary, there would seem to be an inconvenient surplus. Our inferiority to England consists in a rapacious system of taxation called "protection to American industry," based upon the crude idea that if all trades are allowed to feed off each other's vitals, the result will be generally invigorating and fattening. Scarcely a week passes that we do not hear of some distressed industry appealing to the public authorities at Washington for relief, upon the ground that the duties upon its raw materials are greater than those upon its finished product—assertions which may be true or may not, but, whether true or false, serve equally well to illustrate the cannibal practices of our whole tariff system. We shall never be in a position to compete with England in manufactures; we shall never be sheltered as she is sheltered against the contingency of bad harvests and bad seasons, until we begin to strike off the self-imposed shackles which restrict our commerce with the world.

THE ADVISORY BOARD AND FITZ-JOHN PORTER'S CASE.

GENERAL LOGAN's minority report on the bill restoring Fitz-John Porter to his rank in the Army lays great stress on the assumption "that the Advisory Board was an illegal body, unwarranted by law or by pre-

cedent," and from this draws the conclusion that the opinions of the members should weigh no more "than the opinions of any other three gentlemen." This is really the only novel or strong point in General Logan's position. His discussion of the evidence taken by the Board will only interest those who think the General himself a candid and impartial man, accustomed to weighing proofs, who approaches this case without prejudice. When he says, therefore, that "the assumptions of the Board are not borne out or justified by the records or the evidence," he simply says that General Logan does not agree about the Fitz-John Porter case with Generals Schofield and Terry and Colonel Getty. He does not throw any new light on the subject.

His objection to the authority of the Advisory Board on the ground that it was a body unknown to the law, will, however, probably strike a good many unreflecting people as something weighty, if not insuperable, and, in fact, has apparently made some such impression on the plastic intellect of our contemporary, the *Times*. But the fact is that the objection is not only without weight, but without relevancy. It has no bearing on the merits of the case whatever. It would be important, if Fitz-John Porter or the President claimed for the Advisory Board the character of a court, to which an appeal lay from the judgment of a court-martial, and which had the power to overrule such judgment. But nobody has ever maintained that it was a court of any kind, or that any appeal lay to it from a court-martial or any other court whatever, or that it was an organization known to the law, or that it had any judicial powers whatever. So that when any one denies all these things he denies nothing which is of the smallest consequence. The Advisory Board was simply what its name indicates—a board of officers, requested by the President to examine the charges against Fitz-John Porter, and the evidence on which they were based, and let him know what conclusions they reached. The notion that these conclusions are at all weakened by the non-official character of the Board is due to the entirely mistaken supposition that the legal authority and moral authority of a court are derived from the same source. They are not derived from the same source at all. A judge's decision has only as much moral weight as his mind and character give it; while it has as much legal weight as the law gives it. If Generals Schofield and Terry and Colonel Getty had sat as a court-martial, the practical effect of their opinions would have been different, but their force as pieces of reasoning would have been just the same. The reason why people respect their findings in the Porter case is, that they are considered to be military men of the highest standing and character, who have made a painstaking examination of it; and this is the very reason, and no other, which would make people respect their findings if they had sat as a court-martial.

They examined the case in order to advise the President. They have advised him, and he has taken their advice within his own sphere, and now recommends Congress to take it in its sphere. This conveys no reflection on the original court-martial. It simply

says that that court, though composed of upright officers, sat in the most exciting period of the war, when party passion and professional jealousy ran furiously high, and when much evidence which is now available was not forthcoming. Nothing was more likely than that such a tribunal, sitting at such a time, should do great injustice. Nothing can now completely protect it against this imputation except proof of its inspiration. Is this forthcoming? We imagine not. We believe all acknowledge that the influences which governed its action were purely human.

Moreover, it cannot be true that the opinions of such officers as composed the Advisory Board are of no more weight "than those of any other three gentlemen." They must be of more weight than those of any three civilians, and are probably of more weight than those of all soldiers of less experience and less capacity, and of all who have not examined the case. We must believe this, or give up all faith in the future of mankind. If Generals Schofield and Terry know no more about war and Fitz-John Porter than any other men, we can hardly avoid the conclusion that nobody knows more than anybody else on any subject, and that there is no reason why General Logan should not have been sent out to Egypt to observe the late total eclipse of the sun for the Naval Observatory.

GARIBALDI.

THE man who more than any man of our time has furnished modern Europe with a specimen of mediæval romance has just died. He was old and broken, and the fitful fever of his life had ended years ago, and his latest ventures were not successful, but he nevertheless retained to the last such a hold on the popular imagination as probably no real hero has ever had before. To find any parallel for the way in which he has fed the fancy of our century one has to go to fable rather than to history. His match must be looked for among the Knights of the Round Table or the Twelve Peers of Charlemagne, rather than among the warriors or searovers, generals or filibusters of real story. Cortez, Pizarro, Drake, Hawkins, Charles XII., Clive, Napoleon, Lord Dundonald, all had the resources of great states in some degree at their command when they made their contributions to the history of adventure by land and sea. Garibaldi had nothing but a dauntless courage, a passionate love of his country, and absolute simplicity of character. With these for his whole equipment, he literally went forth conquering and to conquer, like the White Horse in the Revelation. He found when he reached man's estate the progress of the revolution, which was finally to transform Europe, still checked by the weariness of the great wars which closed at Waterloo. In England and in France Liberalism had made some headway, and effected some solid gains, but over the rest of the Continent there was still but little sign of the working of that new force the advent of which Goethe had seen and announced on the field of Valmy. As Lord Beaconsfield said at a still later period, in his gaudy style, the world was still ruled by monarchs and statesmen in somewhat ostentatious indifference to the tides of popular feeling. Garibaldi's appearance at Rome, in 1848, was part

of the resumption of the great process which was finally to cover the Continent with constitutions, and bring the mediæval régime at last to a close. He was beaten there, but his defeat by the French was really a help to his cause. It was for the French the first step on the downward road which ended at Sedan and made Italy really free and independent; for an Italy created or permitted by a strong, victorious, and exultant France would have had at best but a precarious and trying existence. The final overthrow in France of the detestable reaction in Church and State to which the French Republic lent itself in 1849 was in reality necessary to establish Italian nationality on a sure and lasting foundation, and to this the fall of Rome did more than its retention by Garibaldi and Mazzini, and their subsequent political experimentation, would have done.

For Garibaldi's fame his flights and wanderings after the triumph of the French and Austrians did everything. They increased his hold on the popular imagination. His adventures in misfortune proved that he had the real stuff of a hero in him, which success in fight does not always do. They spread his glory beyond Italy, and satisfied the workmen of every country that he was something more than an Italian—that he was the champion of all who were desolate and oppressed, no matter under what flag they were born, or in what tongue they spoke. He showed, too, that a modern workingman could display all the qualities which history had from time immemorial reserved for the conventional gentleman. Nobody ever denied that Garibaldi was a gentleman from head to foot. None of the mediæval chroniclers had anything to tell of their military heroes which something in his character or career would not parallel. Bayard, and Du Guesclin, and Sidney were not braver, or gentler, or more uncomplaining, or more unselfish, or readier to show, in the hours which try men's souls, both how to live and how to die. The result was that when in 1859 the supreme moment came, he was all ready for that most marvellous of his exploits, the overthrow of the Neapolitan monarchy and the annexation of the Two Sicilies to Italy. His subsequent career illustrated his restlessness, and his patriotism and humanity, and also, it must be added, his want of judgment, but added nothing to his fame. But his very errors served to endear him still more to his countrymen and to the people everywhere. He became the spoiled child, not only of the new Italian kingdom, but of the European democracy. Everything was forgiven to him in consideration of his past services. His follies even had an indescribable charm—the charm of heroism of the antique type, the simple type which Plutarch has painted, but the reproduction of which in our time the newspapers are making less and less possible, because its largest element was its unconsciousness, and the modern hero finds it difficult to be unconscious.

This age certainly will not look upon Garibaldi's like again. Indeed, the circumstances which produced him were peculiar, and have wholly passed away. He was the

product of conditions which exist no longer, and was born to overcome enemies with whom our society will never have to contend again. The old king and the old priest are gone, and will never return. What will take their place as hindrances to human happiness, who can foresee? But that Italy should have produced such a champion to combat them as Garibaldi, was one of the innumerable proofs her soil has afforded of its inexhaustible fruitfulness. The Italian race has in every age of its history, and every stage of its greatness or its degradation, managed to produce great men, and just the kind of great men the epoch seemed to call for, and on this mysterious fertility no length or depth of political or social misfortune or decay seems to have had much effect. That a country which had lived so long under the worst type of princelet and prelate, should have brought forth at the right time the generation which achieved Italian unity, and should have contributed to the last tableau in the story a figure in all ways so resplendent and picturesque as the gallant old man who has just gone to his rest, is surely a marvellous evidence of the way in which, among races as well as individuals, blood tells.

THE PREVENTION OF CRIME BILL.

LONDON, May 25.

IT is long since England has witnessed any period into which so much of dramatic as well as political interest has been crowded as the first three weeks of this May. Even without the terrible tragedy of the Phoenix Park, there have been surprises, explanations, recriminations sufficient to fill a whole year of Parliamentary history. Each of the leaders has been playing his part with the same sort of passion, expressing himself with the same sort of concentrated force, which one finds in one of Shakspeare's historical dramas; even the visible incidents have been many of them well suited to the stage. What the permanent effect on the strength and relations of parties will be does not yet appear; in the meantime it is sufficient to convey to you some impression of the phases through which public feeling has passed.

The crisis began with the release of the three suspect members, announced on the 2d of May, and the resignation of Mr. Forster, which he explained and justified on the 4th. The first effect of these two changes was to displease the Tory party, to gratify the more advanced section of the Liberal party, and to alarm the more conservative Liberals, who had trusted Mr. Forster, and doubted whether his disappearance from the Cabinet did not mean the relaxation of efforts to maintain order and enforce the law in Ireland. They were further disposed to this belief by the fact that the Government had announced their intention to move more toward a conciliatory policy, and by Mr. Gladstone's reference to certain assurances which had been brought to the Government's knowledge, assurances proceeding from Mr. Parnell and his friends, and declaring their intentions to exert themselves for the prevention of outrages and the restoration of tranquillity in Ireland. Mr. Gladstone, while expressly denying that there had been any compact between the Ministry and the Nationalist leaders, had dwelt on these assurances as an important element in the situation which had led the Government to adopt a sanguine view. Mr. Parnell and his friends hastened to disclaim any obligations on their part, with an earnestness which made some people think the

Government had been beguiled into a piece of foolish leniency, and still more regret the secession of Mr. Forster. Thus it happened that combinations were formed among the Liberals to force the Government to declare at once by what measures for the repression of Irish crime it proposed to replace the Coercion Act, which was shortly to expire. The Tories threatened an attack with the same object, and the position of the Government was felt to be dangerous. Its hitherto faithful majority seemed on the eve of dissolving, and the support which the Parnellites might have given on a division would have ill compensated for the defection of those Whig landowners who form so influential a contingent in the Liberal army. Probably it would have bent to the storm, and given to Parliament an outline of its repressive measure, even if that measure had not yet been brought in. But the very day after these perils had shown themselves, the face of matters was suddenly and completely changed by the murders of Lord F. Cavendish and Mr. Burke. Although the English people bore the shock with dignity and calmness, there was a universal feeling that something must at once be done in Ireland; that before either Parliamentary procedure was set right or the question of tenants' arrears dealt with, secret societies, such as that from which the Dublin crime had proceeded, must be struck at promptly and vigorously. Accordingly the Government immediately announced that they would first of all bring in their Prevention of Crime Bill, and next their Arrears Bill, letting everything else stand over in the meantime.

Even the Parnellite members, horrified by the Dublin assassinations, scarcely protested against this course, for it was plain that whether the Ministry liked it or not, English feeling left them no option. When their intention was proclaimed people breathed again, and though some Conservative papers continued to demand nothing less than martial law, the general tendency was to acquit the Irish nation as a whole, and rather to hope that the sorrow and anger manifested in Ireland might lead to a better feeling between the two countries. Thus, while the partisans of Mr. Forster insisted that the murders proved how correct his view of the state of Ireland was, many people besought the Government to persevere with conciliation, and seek to use for permanent good the present revulsion of Irish sentiment. Among these varying voices the Government brought in upon the 11th, the night of Lord F. Cavendish's funeral, their bill for repressing Irish crime, and on the 19th obtained the second reading of it. It is a very stringent and comprehensive measure, which not only provides for the trial of a series of grave offences by a commission of three judges instead of by a jury, but also empowers the Lord Lieutenant to suppress pernicious newspapers, forbid public meetings, and grant general search-warrants enabling the police to enter houses to look for arms, while it also extends the summary jurisdiction of the magistrates, and creates several offences which they are empowered to punish. Such a measure startled everybody. The Tories and moderate Liberals received it with pleasure as evidence that the Government realized the gravity of the situation, and were prepared to grapple boldly with it. The more extreme Irish Nationalists regarded it as a new declaration of war by the Government, as putting an end to the prospects of reconciliation which the liberation of the three members had opened up. They prepared to give it a resolute, though hopeless, opposition—resolute, because they are, of course, obliged to meet the wishes of the more violent among their Irish constituents; hopeless, because they saw that when the Ministry is supported by the Conservative Opposition,

and has also a pretty strong sentiment from England generally at its back, their resistance can do little, even when backed up, as in this instance it is, by a section of the Liberal party. Several Liberals sharply criticised the bill; some voted against it, while others abstained from voting. Were the Irish Nationalists more moderate in their language, they would receive a good deal of support from the advanced Liberals; but they seem fated to repeat the policy of last year, when nearly all those Liberals who had begun by sympathizing with them ended by joining the Government against them. We are now just entering the discussion of the bill in Committee, a stage which seems, from the number of amendments proposed, likely to occupy a long time. Already the Whitsuntide vacation has been cut down to two or three days only, and it is beginning to be clear that little but Irish business will occupy the remainder of the session.

More interesting to most people than even this remarkable series of developments in the policy of the Ministry toward Ireland have been the personal questions that arose out of the release of the suspects and the contemporaneous retirement of Mr. Forster. Your readers will recollect that when the Prime Minister announced that release he stated that it was made on the sole responsibility of the Government, but largely, or mainly, in consequence of information they had received as to the feelings and intentions of Mr. Parnell and Mr. Dillon. When interrogated as to the nature of this information, he answered that it was for those gentlemen to make their own statements regarding it. Mr. Parnell, on the second or third occasion when this answer had been given, rose and read a letter he had addressed from Kilmainham Jail to Captain O'Shea, member for Clare, who had been in communication with the Government regarding the Irish situation. In this letter Mr. Parnell's views and intentions were set forth. It was shown by Mr. O'Shea to the Government, and had gone a long way toward determining them to release the three members. When it was read in the House of Commons Mr. Forster suddenly asked whether what had been read was the whole of the letter, and on Mr. Parnell's answering that he had read all that was in the copy Mr. O'Shea had given him, but that there might have been another paragraph, Mr. Forster asked, and the House, by its manifestations of curiosity, insisted, that the whole should be read. Mr. O'Shea declared he had no other copy, but Mr. Forster dramatically, and in the midst of great excitement, thrust a copy into his hand, which he then accordingly read aloud. It contained an additional sentence in which Mr. Parnell expressed himself prepared, in case the Government proposed certain measures for the relief of the Irish tenants and further amendment of the Land Act of last year, "to coöperate with the Liberal Government in promoting Liberal principles." These words were laid hold of by the Conservatives as indicating that a bargain had in fact been made by the Ministry with Mr. Parnell for securing the support of him and his followers; and an angry debate followed, the next day, in the course of which one member went so far as to talk of the "infamy" of the Government, while others declaimed upon the dangerous precedent set for the future by what they called the "Treaty of Kilmainham."

Mr. Forster had a difficult part to sustain, and cannot be said to have sustained it successfully. He had exposed not only Mr. Parnell, but his own former colleagues, to sharp Tory criticism, by bringing out the omitted sentence in Mr. Parnell's letter: he had subsequently read a memorandum giving an account (the accuracy of which Mr. O'Shea denied) of an important in-

terview he had held with Mr. O'Shea, and in which Mr. Parnell was represented as having offered to procure the assistance in stopping outrages of a person whom Mr. Forster declared to be a notorious organizer of outrages. He had taken the attitude of a man who would be no party to any negotiations or bargains with the Land Leaguers or other agents of disorder, and had been vehemently applauded by the Conservatives for conduct which it pleased them to contrast with that of the Government. All this greatly annoyed the Ministerialists, the more advanced and outspoken of whom, in the press as well as in Parliament, accused the late Chief Secretary of vindictiveness toward Mr. Parnell and want of loyalty to his own party. He who calmly reviews the whole matter will probably think that these charges are too severe, and that Mr. Forster, although he has certainly injured his friends, did not intend to do so, but was thinking partly of vindicating himself, partly of damaging Mr. Parnell, whose whole policy and conduct he condemns. Perhaps his chief mistake has been in not sufficiently recollecting that there are times when it is better to be silent than even to show that one has done right. And such an impartial observer will also be likely to conclude that far too much has been made of the "Treaty of Kilmainham" and the communications (which Mr. Gladstone will not allow to be called negotiations) that preceded it. If Mr. Parnell and his friends were going to behave quietly in future, nothing more natural than that they should say so—nothing more proper than that the Government, which had no right to keep them in prison untried unless they were dangerous to the public tranquillity, should take their statement into consideration. But it may be thought unfortunate that Mr. Gladstone should have laid so much stress on these communications as the principal ground which the Ministry had for their change of policy. Even without any declaration from Mr. Parnell, there were reasons, ample reasons, why the Coercion Act, which had obviously failed, should be dropped, the suspects liberated, and other measures taken to check crime and violence in Ireland. And it might have saved some recrimination if the Government could have secured that any communications not regarded by them as confidential should be made public at once, instead of being left to be extracted by a process of interrogation.

The incident is one which will no doubt be largely used by the Conservatives for some time to come; but it does not seem, judging from the large majority obtained by the Liberals at the election for Northwest Yorkshire a few days ago, to have much affected the opinion of the country. If Ireland now begins to quiet down, and outrages diminish, the Government may recover its prestige, and last till the next dissolution of Parliament, or longer. But it has certainly had a serious shake. So many apparent changes of attitude—for they are no doubt more apparent than real—within three weeks have disturbed the confidence of the public and diffused a sense of insecurity. Members who have once thought of openly combining against the Government are apt to be less close in their allegiance for the future. Indeed, it may be doubted whether without the personal loyalty to Mr. Gladstone which the advanced Liberals have, and the enthusiasm for him which the large constituencies have, the position of the Government would not be now a weak one.

Y.

THE TOBACCO MONOPOLY REJECTED.

BERLIN, May 17, 1882.

On Saturday last, May 13, the tobacco monopoly was, on its first reading, defeated by the Reichstag by such an overwhelming majority

that the Chancellor will not be able to resuscitate it. Some eloquent speeches were made by the Opposition, but they contributed nothing toward winning a single vote, as every member had made up his mind beforehand. Only two speakers openly declared themselves in favor of the monopoly, and even among Bismarck's friends several spoke against it, while others will not vote at all. Two incidents, however, deserve to be especially mentioned: First, the leader of the Ultramontane party, Mr. Windthorst, declared flatly against the monopoly; so that, if words do not mean the contrary of what they are designed to convey, there is no possible chance of a retreat for the Centre, which commands about 100 votes. The last effort which Mr. Windthorst made yesterday to put off a decision has badly failed, as the object he had in view—that of once more trading and bartering with the Government—was too soon discovered. Next, there was a very significant speech by Mr. Vollmer, a Social-Democratic representative. Not that his deductions were of greater value than those of several other members, but in their practical tendency and in their unequivocal inferences they created quite a sensation among the adherents and followers of the Government.

"Theoretically," the honorable member said, "we accept the socialistic character of the monopoly as a payment on account of our claims, and as an acknowledgment of our just demands; but our democratic convictions are far from being lulled to sleep by the proposal of this measure. Social-Democracy is like dry sand: it absorbs liquids and remains unsaturated. It roots in democracy, and socialism is only a means to an end. Filled with the desire not only of realizing perfect equality before the law but of extending it to private life, a great many thinking minds have fallen upon the attempt to apply violence and force in carrying out their aims. The idea, however, of reducing this brute force from a rough and sporadic efficiency to a self-working and methodical system, has led some Democrats toward socialism, in the logical development of which they cannot stop to have labor, capital, and other means of production monopolized by the Government or private individuals. If a trade is carried on by the Government, it is socialism; confiscation of large means of production is an essential injury to private property, and on that account, although only as a means to a definite end, will be welcomed by my socialistic brethren. If, however, an aristocratic end, as in the present case of the consolidation and strengthening of large real-estate and manufacturing interests, is to be reached by the monopoly, we had rather disown our socialism than our democracy. We reject the tobacco monopoly, although it bears a socialistic character; we do so because it is not a democratic measure. We need not conceal our motives, but openly lay them before the people. You [addressing the Conservatives] are better riders than we are, but in running the race for the poor man we are and always shall be ahead of you. You will never succeed in catching the poor people, as you are moving on an inclined plane; but be assured, gentlemen, that the movement will not halt before reaching your manors."

This is a really fine perspective. With a rather diabolical delight the Social-Democracy observes and follows the disintegration of the idea of private property. It has every reason to welcome the prospect that others are sowing what it will reap. With us it is the Government which sows the principle that for the promotion of higher interests it can appropriate to its use the working capital of a large business. When the profits come in, the perception will also ripen that the state can annex more or all trades for its benefit, and that especially the confiscation of real estate can as easily, if not much more easily, be carried out than that of personal property. If a widely-spread and comparatively small manufacture, with a highly developed home industry, like tobacco, can be turned over to the state, why then should the latter not hasten to seize the large manorial estates, the great factories, and to work or have them worked for its own benefit? That no adequate

damages are paid for the numerous losses which the private business men must suffer when left to the mercy of the Government is a matter of infinite gratification to the Social-Democrat. It is he who steps in for the principle that all real values ought to belong to the state, to the community, to the people at large, and ought to be returned to them without any ceremony. The Conservatives listened more attentively than others to this socialistic apostrophe. From old Count Moltke down to the smaller fry, Kleist-Retzow, Windthorst, and others, it seemed as if a melancholy and fatal prospect opened before their eyes. What this man said, in fact, amounted to the same theory which Bismarck's organ, the *Provinzial-Korrespondenz*, does not tire of preaching every day to the Liberal middle classes. I tremble for my country when I think that all these wild doctrines may one day become reality.

To return to the tobacco monopoly: the Liberals wanted to have it discussed for the second reading in the House; but, in spite of the opposition, a special committee was finally appointed by about 170 to 120. It consists of twenty-eight members, twenty-three of whom are against and five for the monopoly. The Reichstag having adjourned for the holidays till June 6, the Committee on Tobacco will in the meantime make its reports, and will have to find the reasons which induced the Reichstag to reject the monopoly. Others expect that in one of its first meetings it will reject the first article, which makes tobacco a state monopoly, and then without further debate will send back the bill to the House, where it will be discussed very cursorily. Thus the final doom of the monopoly is sealed. Bismarck cannot dare to defy its enemies, nor can he gain anything by dissolving the Reichstag, as its successor would be still more inimical to it. What is left to him? He can and probably will in the next session introduce a new bill, which, in fact, will be an imitation of the present American system, and which may yield him a revenue of some 10,000,000 to 15,000,000 of marks over the 42,000,000 which tobacco pays at present. Whatever he may do hereafter, the noble and patriotic city of Bremen is saved from utter ruin, and the Reichstag has maintained its honor by refusing to saddle the people with a measure directed against the interest and personal dignity of every working citizen. This defeat of Bismarck's policy is heavier than any previous one, for even the masses begin to think that he is greatly mistaken in his tariff measures and tax laws, and that in future they will do better not to trust him too implicitly.

Of all crimes which in our time pass unpunished in Russia, none are more shocking and provoking than the atrocities from which the Jews are suffering in the middle and southern parts of that empire. Under the pretext that the Czar wishes it, an infuriated mob, led by soldiers and officers, plunders the houses of rich and poor Jews, wantonly destroys their property, and massacres babies, women, and men. Whole cities are sacked, as, for instance, last Easter Monday, Balta, where about 5,000 people were first robbed and then driven into exile. These mediaeval horrors defy all description. It is as if another St. Bartholomew had become the order of the day. Your wild Indians cannot make sadder havoc among the peaceful people of a newly-grown settlement than these Russian brutes do. Arson, murder, violence, and rape, mutilation and burning alive belong to the every-day occurrences in Russia; and, what is still worse, we cannot yet see an end of these atrocities, as Ignatieff is at the bottom of them all. Thousands of these poor exiled people have gone to the neighboring shores of Galicia and Rumania; hundreds of thousands will follow, and millions

would go if they commanded the means to leave the country. It is an exodus like of which the history of emigration has not yet seen. The Puritans, the French Huguenots, and the Palatines were a mere handful of men in proportion to the emigrating Jews. The United States, of course, have the greatest attraction for them, and the compassion of your people for the homeless wanderers will at no distant day be severely tested. In the large European cities committees are formed for the purpose of alleviating the misery of the Russian Jews. London, Paris, Berlin, Vienna, Frankfurt, and Amsterdam march at the head of these benevolent associations, which are coöperating with New York. Their object is a double one: (1) to send over as many as deserve it and will be able to become farmers; (2) to buy land for them and pay the expenses of their first settlement. While the execution of the latter part of this programme is left to the New York committee, the European coöperators devote themselves chiefly to its first part. The collection of at least \$10,000,000 is intended. London has taken the lead; in Paris one of the Rothschilds is at the head of the movement. Here some 200,000 marks were paid in at the first announcement. The Paris banker Hirsch, a native of Munich, has contributed 1,000,000 francs; a rich Jewish merchant in Odessa even 500,000 rubles. On the whole, it is evident that the rich Jews are fully aware of their duties toward their co-religionists, and on the other hand it is a rather gratifying fact that among all creeds there is no difference of opinion as to the necessity of contributing as largely as possible.

The practical experience of those financiers who are at the head of the movement enables them to do real good and to lessen the sufferings of the Jews in a lasting and most effective manner. The European committees will wisely refrain from meddling with the business of settling the emigrants in America, and confine themselves to indicating to the New York committee their views on this important question. Their only objection is to having Southern lands selected; they prefer the new Northwestern States and Territories, as, for instance, the lands along the Northern Pacific Railroad line, as best adapted for the settlement of people who come from a country whose climate corresponds to that of the Northwest. As good business men, they do not propose to present the emigrants with land and an inventory, but they advance the necessary funds with little or no interest. Thus they will be enabled to continue the business from year to year, and send out regular columns from the same regions. In my opinion, 1,000,000 of Jewish settlers may be counted upon for the next ten years, for it is not only the poor and helpless element which is taken care of by the several committees, but the well-to-do classes of Jews from other parts of Russia will follow them as soon as they can dispose of their property, and seek a home in the far West. May they be well received by the people of the United States, who can best appreciate suffering for conscience's sake! In the beginning some miserable and shabby individuals may slip in, but on the whole your country will win an industrious and thrifty population; and besides, it has elbow-room enough to add to its old stock of inhabitants a new and prosperous element. +++

Correspondence.

MR. RICE ON RENT.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: Whatever opinion may be formed regarding my article, "Has Land a Value?" there certainly can be no doubt about its avowed

object to furnish a theoretical defence of private property in land against the reasoning of Mr. Henry George. What connection there can be between it and a "Greenback-Labor" organ I am at loss to discover.

As for the criticism of your correspondent, passing over the senseless abuse as beneath notice, I shall only remark that by his quotation from my article and his comments thereon, he has demonstrated his inability to comprehend even in what the subject-matter of the discussion consists, or he never could have delivered himself of the following piece of wisdom: "What has been 'inseparably amalgamated' with the land thereafter affects landlord and tenant in precisely the same manner as if it had pertained to the land from the beginning of the world." He would have known that my article, which is a professed reply to Mr. Henry George's "Common Sense of Taxation," deals not at all with relation of landlord and tenant, but with relation of landlord with the state. Mr. George, relying on Ricardo, maintains that the money paid by the tenant is paid for the use of free gifts of nature, is therefore not justly earned by the landlord, and ought to be confiscated by means of taxation. I, on the other hand, contend that the money paid by the tenant is interest on the capital applied to, and amalgamated with, the land, and therefore as justly earned as any other money, and ought not to be confiscated.

Any one who possesses a modicum of intelligence must perceive that in this issue between the landlord and the tax-gatherer it is of vital importance to know whether rent is paid, as Ricardo asserts, for original qualities of the soil—the free gifts of nature—or, as I claim, for the capital expended on the land, though it be ever so inseparably amalgamated with it.

I hope that the case is now put plainly enough for even Mr. X.'s powers of comprehension.

Yours very respectfully,

ISAAO L. RICE.

NEW YORK, June 5, 1882.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: A correspondent chides you, in yesterday's issue, for lending importance to Mr. Rice's nonsense on the "rent" question by noticing it in your columns. But the policy of "silent contempt" for ignorant or fallacious writing may easily be carried too far—not only (as you have pointed out) because such writings often manage to appear in prominent publications, but also for two other reasons which I ask your leave to mention.

In the first place, it is a great mistake to assume that the mass of readers who are not specialists are at all sure to be protected by their own discrimination against the confusing or misleading tendencies of plausibly-stated fallacies and confidently-asserted "facts." It is enough for many that a writer goes through the "motions" of "demonstrating" something, and a little flavor of surprise or paradox does but make the *pseudo* "correction" or discovery just so much the more attractively *piquant*. It is true, of course, as Frederick Harrison has somewhere said, that one who has positive, systematic work to do should resist the temptation to stop by the way to fight objectors; but while this is so, and while the main army of science ought to march on in direct pursuance of the general plan of the campaign, that skirmishing corps of sharpshooters, the journalistic critics, have quite as clearly a peculiar and most important service to perform in looking after the enemy's guerilla bands. This very article of Mr. Rice's, curiously enough, has been recommended to me by more than one sturdy and "successful" American as

containing a brilliant and conclusive "refutation" of the theory that rent can ever include payment for anything but the labor actually invested in the improvement of the land. In the March *Princeton* (a review held by many to be the first in America, and which includes among its contributors such men as Professor Sumner, of Yale) the leading article was one by Dr. Sturtevant—a "D.D., LL.D."—elaborately maintaining that the only way to defend society from Henry George's revolutionary scheme is to "deny" the correctness of Ricardo's law of rent!

Secondly, it seems to me quite clear that such fallacious writings often furnish the very best sort of "texts" for the lay sermons of the proper kind of teachers, especially in view of the fact that for many minds the polemical form of composition is the most attractive, intelligible, and suggestive one in which it is possible to treat a serious subject seriously.

CHARLES FREDERIC ADAMS.

NEW YORK, June 2, 1882.

THE NATIONAL BANK EXTENSION.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: In your remarks on Hammond's amendment to the Bank Charter Extension Bill, which takes from the national banks the privilege of suing in the United States courts, unless where other banks could do so, you mistake entirely the bearing of the passage in the Constitution which defines how far the judicial power of the United States "shall extend." Under the precedents established by the Supreme Court in the case of the old Bank of the United States, it seems to be settled that any suit by or against a bank chartered by the United States may be considered "a case, in law or equity, arising under the Constitution, treaties, or laws of the United States." This seems odd, for in nine cases out of ten the questions arising in the course of the suit will be those of plain commercial law quite unmixing with any *casus fœderis*; and perhaps it was an accident that the doctrine ever grew up. However, it is now too well established to be shaken. But it by no means follows that every case to which the judicial power of the United States extends shall be tried, or even that it shall be triable, in those courts. Only in a very small class of cases does the Constitution itself confer jurisdiction on the courts. In all other cases the extent of the jurisdiction within the limits prescribed in the Constitution is left to the discretion of Congress, and has fluctuated at different times between very wide limits. Thus, the jurisdiction of the United States Circuit Courts, in cases arising between citizens of different States, or "where an alien is a party," has been always confined to those in which the sum or value of five hundred dollars at the least is involved; and, until lately, it was also required that one or the other party should be a citizen of the State within which the court was held. As there is no real ill-feeling anywhere against the national banks, and they are generally controlled and owned by citizens of the State in which they are located, the privilege which they heretofore possessed of choosing between the State and Federal tribunals was rather odious, and had no good ground to stand upon; and I do not wonder, therefore, that Hammond's amendment was adopted without division.

Whatever little prejudice against these banks was kept alive by the declamations of the Greenbackers and their allies will be put at rest now, when it becomes apparent that for twenty years at least they will be one of the fixed institutions of the country.

L. N. D.

LOUISVILLE, KY., May 28, 1882.

Notes.

THOMAS WHITTAKER will publish the 'Charles Dickens Birthday Book' prepared by the author's oldest daughter and illustrated by his youngest.

Roberts Bros., Boston, invite subscriptions to a reprint, without abridgment, in four volumes, of the *Dial*, plus an index, naming the contributors as far as possible, and an historical account of this periodical. The new matter will be from the hand of the Rev. Geo. Willis Cooke. The price of the reprint will be \$15, but the index will also be sold separately for \$1. 'Aschenbrödel' will complete the second series of the "No-Name Novels" published by this house.

G. P. Putnam's Sons will shortly publish a quarto "railroad" edition of 'Hood's Own Whims and Oddities,' with all the original illustrations; 'Social Equality: a Study in a Missing Science,' by W. H. Mallock; Leslie Stephen's 'Science of Ethics'; Edward Dicey's 'Victor Emanuel'; and 'The Political Conspiracies Preceding the Rebellion, with the true stories of Fort Sumter and Fort Pickens,' by Lieut.-Col. Thomas A. Anderson, U.S.A.

A. Williams & Co., Boston, have nearly ready 'Thaddeus Stevens, Commoner,' by E. B. Candler; and 'Sly Ballades on Harvard China,' *vers de société*, illustrated by Lambert Hollis.

Ginn & Heath, Boston, announce 'Elements of Physics,' by Alfred P. Gage; a classified 'Readers' Guide to English History,' by Prof. W. F. Allen, of the University of Wisconsin; and a 'Spanish Grammar,' for colleges, by Prof. Wm. I. Knapp, of Yale College.

The Providence Public Library's *Monthly Reference Lists* for May contains bibliographic references on "Darwin and his Scientific Influence," and on "Emerson's Philosophical Position."

The pretty little log-book, 'Across the Atlantic,' published by A. D. F. Randolph & Co., interleaves daily devotion with secular and nautical observations, and encourages the traveller to believe that at the most his voyage will not be protracted beyond the thirteenth day.

Mr. S. Russell Forbes's 'Rambles in Rome' (London and New York: T. Nelson & Sons) will be a rival of Murray's rather than of Baedeker's handbook, being intended as "an archeological and historical guide to the museums, galleries, villas, churches, and antiquities of Rome and the Campagna." The promise of the title-page is well carried out. The leading results of the excavations of recent years are given, and the addresses of resident artists down to the date of last March. The present work is on a larger scale than Mr. Forbes's earlier 'Rambles in Naples,' and it will be found of service to the leisurely tourist.

'Gabriel Conroy' is the latest volume of Houghton, Mifflin & Co.'s uniform and handsome reprint of Bret Harte's complete works.

Tibbitts & Shaw, Providence, send us Mr. John Russell Bartlett's 'Letters of Roger Williams' (1632-1682), gathered from a considerable number of historical works into one quarto volume, and presented to the reader in a style that would do credit to any press in America. These letters abound in expressions of the noblest sentiments—justice for the Indians, the love of peace and of civil and religious liberty, the sacrifice of self-interest to the general good, and the hatred of every form of oppression. We are glad that even in a limited edition they are now made accessible to a larger public than the Narragansett Club, by and for which they were first published eight years ago. The publishers have been less than frank in removing from the book all traces of this previous issue—a proceed-

ing historically indefensible, and a concession to the popular prejudice in favor of the brand-new from which publishers and booksellers, as well as authors, suffer perpetually.

'Eve's Daughters; or, Common Sense for Maid, Wife, and Mother,' by Marion Harland (New York: J. R. Anderson & H. S. Allen) is a book of excellent principles and of much good intention, but the arguments are based upon extravagant estimates, for better or worse. Subjects which permit only the wisest and the most delicate treatment are so mixed up with the exaggerated and the declamatory, that a careful mother would be sorry to have it fall into the hands of her daughter.

'The Chemistry of Cooking and Cleaning,' by Ellen H. Richards (Boston: Estes & Lauriat), is a laudable attempt to enforce by scientific chemistry some facts long familiar to painstaking housewives. It bristles with chemical symbols, but this need not deter the reader, for the practical suggestions are simple enough for the comprehension of the uninitiated.

The May number of the *Magazine of American History* presents the first engraved portrait of the Chevalier La Salle ever made in this country. M. Gabriel Gravier, of Rouen, who furnishes the accompanying letterpress—a sketch of his hero's life—also furnished the photograph, from an original painting, which has been followed by the engraver. The face, in profile, is noble, and well calculated to stimulate the designer of the contemplated Texas monument to the explorer.

Col. H. Yule writes to the London *Athenæum*, in a sympathetic obituary notice of the late Dr. John Brown, author of 'Marjorie Fleming,' 'Rab and his Friends,' etc., that some seven years ago the sum of \$30,000 was quietly raised for him on the initiative of his publisher, Mr. David Douglas—a kindred spirit, by the way.

The writings of Leonardo da Vinci—which fill about five thousand pages in the autograph manuscripts, but which have remained unknown owing to the difficulties of deciphering, and partly also to the fact that most of them have been hidden away—have of late been systematically investigated by Dr. Jean Paul Richter, who intends to publish the original texts accompanied by an English translation and by explanatory notes. This publication is to be issued in two volumes, toward the end of the year, and will contain Leonardo's writings on painting, sculpture, architecture; his observations on astronomy, geology, and geography; on anatomy; his humorous writings, philosophical maxims; his letters and miscellaneous notes, etc. The number of still existing original paintings by this great artist is supposed to be exceedingly small, but, fortunately, a very great number of drawings and sketches have come down to us. Of these the most valuable are preserved in the Royal Library at Windsor Castle. Dr. Richter's publication will be illustrated by 220 such original drawings in photo-engravings (Dujardin's process) and about 450 other facsimile reproductions. The subscription for the book has been started by the Royal Academy of Arts, London, with a grant of £100, and by the Crown Prince of Germany, and the list already contains the names of numerous connoisseurs and librarians of public institutions, etc. The price for subscribers is eight guineas (payable on the delivery of the whole work), but on the day of publication it will be raised to twelve guineas. Subscriptions are to be sent to the publishers, Messrs. Sampson Low & Co., 188 Fleet Street, London.

—The third annual report of the Executive Committee of the Archaeological Institute of America shows the work of the past year to

have been significant in point of achievement and rich in promise. At home, Mr. Bandelier, as heretofore, has been the chief explorer. Availing himself of the opportunity furnished by the Lorillard Expedition to Mexico and Central America, he interrupted his New Mexican researches in order to spend four months (March-June, 1881) at Cholula (near Puebla) in the former country. A synopsis of his report, which is now in press, gives two conclusions of Mr. Bandelier's: (1) as to the deity worshipped anciently at Cholula, Quetzal-chohuatl, that he was an historic character, of the Toltec race; (2) as to the so-called "pyramid," that it is "an artificially elevated, fortified pueblo," composed of ordinary material (adobe) from the neighborhood, and the work rather of many years than of a great multitude at one time. At Mitla, in Oaxaca, he subsequently made a study of the imposing ruins called "palaces," which he regards as "shelters at night and in bad weather," and refuges for the women and children in time of attack. The Assos excavations, on the other hand, have fully justified the moderate expense incurred in promoting them. Besides the determination of the plans of the various public buildings, some epigraphic discoveries of importance have been made, with sculptures that will be shared by casts with the Berlin Museum and the Louvre. The sum of \$3,500 will still be needed to complete the work. With the third incident in the Institute's record—the founding of the American School of Classical Studies at Athens, by concurrent action of the leading colleges, and the appointment of Prof. Goodwin to be director for the first year—our readers are already familiar.

—The specialty of "time" and timepieces for which the Yale College Observatory has distinguished itself seems to have led to the formation at New Haven of the Standard Time Company, of which Marshall Jewell is President, and Leonard Waldo, of the Observatory, Secretary. This commercial enterprise embraces the designing and construction of "time-balls, time-guns, flashing and other signals for Government, observatory, and railroad time services," the manufacture of complete systems, the regulation of them, etc. The Company have the sole agency for the Yale College Observatory Time Signals, and are the sole owners for America of the (English) Barraud & Lunds patents for the automatic setting of clocks by electricity. This conjunction of science and business meets an imperative public need, and will facilitate the ultimate adoption of an international reckoning of time. We understand that the Company will shortly apply the Lunds patents to a complete system of 161 synchronized clocks in the stations of the elevated railroads of this city—a public convenience which will be widely appreciated.

—Mark Twain's jay who dropped acorns into the chamber of a log-cabin, under the delusion that he was filling up a hole in the roof, has his match in the California woodpecker. This bird (sometimes called the *carpintero*, from his dexterity), as we learn from a paper by Mr. Robert E. C. Stearns, in the *American Naturalist* for May, has a habit of boring holes in the bark of trees and then filling them with acorns, whether for the sake of the nut itself or of the grub to be found in it, is uncertain. Sometimes these holes are made in the wood, sometimes the acorn is stuck in a crack between boards, or again stored in the cavity of the boxed ends of the projecting rafters of the eaves; and the woodpeckers "not infrequently drop acorns down chimneys, where of course the result of their labor is without any advantage." "The jays and squirrels," observes Mr. Stearns, "are quite likely benefited by the acorn-storing habit of this species of woodpecker;

and I have been told that the jay sometimes assists the woodpecker by bringing acorns for the carpintero to deposit in the bark; and further, that sometimes the jays put pebbles in the acorn holes 'to fool the woodpeckers'; but these latter statements, though perhaps true, need confirmation."

—At the Cincinnati meeting of the American Forestry Association in April, two papers by Mr. Stearns were read, on the forest-tree culture in California, and on the growth of certain of the forest-trees of that State. He reviews the ten years since the first ardent planting of eucalyptuses and acacias began there, and in regard to the former species particularly has something interesting to relate. Three-fifths of the eucalyptuses set out are blue-gums (*E. globulus*); the rest being *E. viminalis*, or *marginata*, or *rostrata*. The first named is the most rapid of growth, but its wood is inferior in point of hardness. Mr. Stearns considers six millions a moderate estimate of the whole number of eucalyptuses planted in 1872-82, a large proportion of them for purposes of adornment in streets, yards, and suburban neighborhoods—so large that their monotony has become unpleasant, while their shade and roots destroy all humbler vegetation within reach, and the odor of the blue-gum is offensive to many. Their value for timber cannot yet be determined, nor perhaps for another decade; for fire-wood their profitableness seems proved. Of a plantation partly planted and partly sown in 1869, twenty acres were lately cleared to make room for an orchard, and yielded a net profit of \$3,868 04 in eleven years. Prof. Hilgard, of the University of California, says of the wood that it "is no softer or more porous than redwood; probably as durable and resistant of insects or decay. It is better fuel than cottonwood, and it is good for inner cabinet-work if not for outside." The Central Pacific Railroad Company have experimented with the eucalyptus on a large scale, including some species not already mentioned; but the *E. rostrata* and *viminalis* appear to be the hardiest. In his second paper Mr. Stearns suggests "that if, upon a given date, numerous trees were felled, so that we could have transverse sections of all of the principal species, such trees being located at various points in the State" and selected with reference to similarity of environment, we might find a "close parallelism between rings of maximum thickness and seasons of maximum rainfall." In this way we might determine whether or not there are wet and dry cycles, having a record of 70 to 150 years in the case of pines, 500 to 700 in the case of redwoods, and 1,300 to 1,400 in the case of sequoias.

—The death of Professor Wm. B. Rogers in Boston, on May 30, removes not only one of the foremost of our scientific men, but perhaps the one who had in the highest degree the faculty of presenting the claims of science on popular interest and respect with force and lucidity. He had a remarkable gift of expression, and an unusually winning and persuasive manner, both of which were supported by a character of the utmost purity and simplicity. His health has been delicate for some years, but, nevertheless, death came to him in what he would doubtless have considered its most welcome shape. He was spared all decay of his faculties, and was engaged at the moment he was struck down in addressing the audience at the Commencement exercises at the Institute of Technology, of which he was for some time President, about his own work in it. He, consequently, may be said to have literally died in harness; and not only this, but died when telling the story of what was the latest and perhaps most interesting episode in a long and honored career. It is given to but

few to reach the goal under circumstances of so much dignity and pathos, and but very few have as strong claims as Professor Rogers had to such a reward.

—Travellers now and then fall into mistakes by not using their guide-books, and by drawing too freely upon their own consciousness in explanation of what they see. A well-known writer, in a recent number of *Harper's Magazine*, gives a very interesting account of Toledo. He tells us that the Musarabic mass celebrated in the Musarabic chapel of the cathedral is "a seeming mixture of Mohammedan ritual with Christian worship," established by a compromise for the benefit of the subjugated Moors (fancy either party entering into such a compromise!); that "in front of the altar-steps was placed a richly-draped chest, perhaps meant to represent the tomb of Mohammed in the Caaba, and around it stood lighted candles," etc. The guide-book would have informed him that the compromise—if it may be so called—was between the old Christians with the Gothic ritual, who when Toledo yielded to the Moors were by treaty allowed to keep up their worship in six churches, and the incoming ecclesiastical authorities after the reconquest, who came with the Gregorian service, and who, less tolerant than the Moors, ousted the old Christians from their six churches, giving them instead the single chapel, in which the ancient service is still maintained.

—A French collector, who can exhibit more than 20,000 ornamental letters derived from old books, contributes to the May number of *Le Livre* a portion of an essay (which we hope will not be all) on the ancient ornamentation of books. He devotes himself entirely to the class which he styles Gothic, and gives a large number of examples of alphabets in three sizes or ranges. Some of these are of great beauty and ingenuity. Paul Lacroix makes an equivocal acknowledgment of Champfleury's recent subacid attention to him in this magazine, and, by way of correction, prints part of his inedited memoirs, in which he records his relations with Balzac. The story of the latter's ambitious enterprise as printer, type-founder, and publisher, and complete though unmerited failure, is told anew and bears repetition, for a singular episode it was. In the news department of this issue we read of the discovery of the existence and death of a daughter of Alfred de Musset's, a young girl who died in 1875 at Saint-Maurice in Saintonge, at the age of twenty-one. A miniature of her not much younger has been found and is described. Her tomb bears the name of Norma Tessum-Ouda, and several of her books contained dedications signed by her father, and addressing her as daughter and Norma. "Tessum" is Musset reversed; but Ouda, read backward or forward, is as yet unexplained. *Le Livre* reports the annual meeting of the Franklin Society, whose object is to found public libraries in France. It has raised more than \$20,000 for military libraries (*bibliothèques de caserne* and *des hôpitaux*), and twice that sum has been expended in supplying popular or school libraries with nearly 100,000 volumes. These figures are not so large as we are accustomed to deal with. Mr. Bouton is the American publisher of *Le Livre*.

—We have received from Athens a pamphlet entitled "The Value of the Artillery of Greece" (*Περὶ τῆς Ἀξίας τοῦ Πυροβολικοῦ τῆς Ἑλλάδος*). It appears that during the recent excitement over the question of the Greek boundary, the Government made large purchases of cannon from the Krupp foundry at Essen. These purchases were made the occasion of a furious attack upon the

Government by one Stephanos Xenos, who lauded to the skies the Armstrong guns while pouring contempt and abuse upon the Krupp cannon, and in fact upon everything of German manufacture. This roused the indignation of Dr. Michael Deffner, whose name has been recently mentioned in these columns as the author of a valuable work, 'Grammar of the Tsakonian Dialect,' and whose character and career well entitle him to the notice of scholars. He was a pupil of Georg Curtius, and turned his attention early in his university course to the modern Greek language. His studies completed, he went to Greece and established himself as a privat-docent at the University of Athens, where he has now become, we believe, an assistant professor. The pamphlet to which we have referred gives a detailed account of the establishment of Friedrich Krupp, and, by the testimony adduced as to the excellence of the Krupp guns, justifies the wisdom of the Greek Government in preferring them to others. At the same time, the writer takes the opportunity to make some pointed and needed observations upon the license of Greek pamphlet writers, and the injury which they do to the cause of stable government by their violent and seldom disinterested attacks. He expresses the hope that "no one will suspect that I serve party ends. For, although I am a Greek citizen, I abstain from all factious meddling with politics: first, because I lack the leisure for this, and, secondly, because I am perfectly aware that only on condition of strict abstinence from such things can a naturalized citizen retain a position under the Government!" Thus Dr. Deffner seems to be an example of that discreet and intelligent interest of the scholar in politics which is as much needed in Greece as in the United States.

—Not the least of the attractions offered to the large number of American tourists who are going to Europe this summer will be the performances of Wagner's new music-drama, "Parsifal," at Bayreuth, throughout the month of August. The tickets for the first two nights have already all been disposed of to members of the Society of Patrons, but for the other nights it will be possible to secure admission in any of the large German cities where arrangements for the sale of tickets have been made. At the first festival, in 1876, the admission price was a considerable item of expense—being seventy-five dollars for the four nights. This year the price of a ticket will be only seven dollars, or thirty marks, and as the worthy citizens of Bayreuth were during the last festival thoroughly aroused to a sense of their duties, there is reason to believe that this summer they will be able to provide a bed and a meal for every tourist who persists in the belief that man cannot live on music alone. There will doubtless again be that large assemblage of prominent musicians, artists, and authors which alone would have repaid a visit to Bayreuth in 1876; and that the performances will be models of perfection in every detail is a foregone conclusion, as in every department only the best of its kind has been secured. Wagner is original not only as musician and poet, but as scenic artist as well; and some of the scenic effects are said by those who have seen the sketches to be of marvellous beauty and ingenuity. The orchestra and the chorus, which is a prominent feature in "Parsifal," will be those of the Royal Opera of Munich, and as no other musicians and singers are so thoroughly familiar with all of Wagner's works as they, a better choice could not have been made. The list of soloists includes such names as Materna, Brandt, Malten, Vogel, Winkelmann, Jäger, Gudehus, Scaria, Siehr, Reichmann, etc., and the fact that each of the leading parts will be

sung alternately by several artists will give an opportunity for interesting comparisons and study.

—Many are still troubled by the question why these performances should take place at a small town like Bayreuth, instead of in one of the German capitals, any one of which would, after the triumphant success of the "Nibelung" Tetralogy, be only too glad to accept its author's latest work. The principal reason is that nowhere else could Wagner so completely secure that accuracy and conscientious observance of all the peculiarities of his style which, as he himself says, alone can justify his deviation from the traditional practice of operatic composers. The initiated know that in any royal or stadt-theatre the manager would inevitably have some "suggestions" to offer in regard to the management of this or that detail, the selection of vocalists, etc.; and Wagner does not want to be hampered in his movements. Besides, the Bayreuth theatre is the only one in existence built in such a manner that the perspective and balance between the scenic, dramatic, and musical elements of his dramas can be perfectly preserved. At Bayreuth he is absolute monarch, and the devotion of all the singers to his principles assures him that not a single gesture will be misplaced, nor a single note misconstrued. It is Wagner's aim to make the Bayreuth theatre a sort of dramatic high school, where stage vocalists may assemble every year and learn the peculiarities of the new dramatic style by attending to his directions and observing each other. In a recent letter to Hans von Wolzogen he says that he should dread the labor of preparing a "model performance" of one of his earlier operas, because so many errors abound in the work of even their best interpreters at the present day. In "Parsifal," however, none of these errors will have to be eradicated, and visitors to the festival may therefore expect Wagner pure and undefiled. If newspaper reports may be trusted, Wagner considers "Parsifal" his best work, and, as the last work of most composers is their best, this seems quite probable. The dramatic text, which was published a few years ago, abounds in poetic passages of striking beauty, and is eminently adapted for musical treatment. The piano score, arranged by Joseph Rubinstein, has also just appeared, and a careful preliminary study of the leading motives in it will enable those who can attend only one of the performances at Bayreuth to derive much additional enjoyment from it.

JOHN STUART MILL.—II.

John Stuart Mill: A Criticism, with Personal Recollections, by Alexander Bain, LL.D. London: Longmans, Green & Co.; New York: Henry Holt & Co.

"STERLING," writes Mill, "told me how he and others had looked upon me (from hearsay information) as a 'made' or manufactured man, having had a certain impress of opinion stamped on me which I could only reproduce." This popular notion of Mill was not more than half true. It is, however, a sign of Mill's want of self-knowledge that he should not, when reviewing his own moral and mental development, have perceived that this current idea contained, in spite of its inaccuracy, a half-truth of the highest importance. James Mill threw the whole strength of a very strong will, and all the resources of a very acute intellect, into the effort to make his son the model of a thinker after James Mill's own heart. That, as far as his father's efforts could achieve the result, John Mill was intellectually and morally a "manufactured" man, warranted to reproduce, to ex-

plain and defend all the articles of the Benthamite creed, is a fact of which we have the best evidence. When John was not more than six years old, James Mill, whose health was shaken, wrote thus to Bentham:

"I am not going to die, notwithstanding your zeal to come in for a legacy. However, if I were to die any time before this poor boy is a man, one of the things which would pinch me most sorely would be the being obliged to leave his mind *unmade to the degree of excellence to which I hope to make it*. But another thing is that the only prospect which would lessen that pain would be the leaving him in your hands. I therefore take your offer quite seriously, and stipulate merely that it shall be made *as good as possible*, and then we may perhaps leave him a successor worthy of both of us."

The words we have underlined give the secret of James Mill's ambition. He was a hard man; he was no sentimentalist, yet he had his romance. The dream of his life was to provide his son with a mind made "to the degree of excellence to which I hope to make it," and thus leave behind him a successor worthy of the prophets of Utilitarianism. This was James Mill's dream, and John Mill has recorded the infinite labor, talent, and energy expended by his father on bringing the dream to fulfillment. Circumstances lent themselves to the accomplishment of the dreamer's ends. John Mill exhibited just that combination of docility with talent which is rarely to be found in the disciples of energetic teachers. His teachableness and essential modesty were probably concealed from the mass of the world under the habits of logical combativeness fostered by his father's training; but friendly observers soon perceived that the boy was willing to learn and easy to teach. "Upon all occasions," writes Lady Bentham, "his gentleness under reproof and thankfulness for correction are remarkable; and as it is by reason, supported by examples, we point out to him that we endeavor to convince him—not by command that we induce him to do so and so—we trust that you will have satisfaction from that part of his education we are giving him to fit him for commerce with the world at large." A letter from John Mill to his father, written at the same date, notes "the great kindness of Sir Samuel Bentham's family in constantly, without ill humor, explaining to him the defects in his way of conducting himself in society," and contains the comment, "I ought to be very thankful." A boy of fifteen so ready to take reproof was material easily to be moulded by a person of unconquerable resolution, and the following passage from the correspondence between father and son affords painful proof of the dominion which the man had obtained over the youth: "I wish I had nothing else to tell you, but I must inform you that I have lost my watch. It must have been lost while I was out of doors, but it is impossible it should have been stolen from my pocket. It must, therefore, be my own fault. The loss itself (though I am conscious that I must remain without a watch till I can buy one for myself) is to me not great—much less than my carelessness deserves. It must, however, vex you, and deservedly, from the bad sign which it affords of me."

A pupil may be docile and yet not worth the trouble of teaching. An educator has failed in his object if his labors produce not a follower, but an imitator. James Mill had the rare good fortune to find in his son a disciple endowed with a will far less strong, but with an intellect not less remarkable than his teacher's. Hence the elder Mill realized, or all but realized, his day-dream: he lived to see his son's mind clearly "made" to the hoped-for "degree of excellence." He might fairly hope, at his own death, that he left behind him a successor not unworthy either of himself or of Bentham. Nor had he any reason to fear that the essential doctrines

of the Benthamite school would ever be obliterated from his pupil's mind. There seems, indeed, to have been a good deal of divergence in sentiment between the father and son. John's admiration for Carlyle, his reverence for Coleridge, and his unbounded admiration for De Tocqueville, were not very congenial to the narrow dogmas of the old Utilitarian democrat. Still, on the whole, James Mill had good reason to be satisfied with his work: John Mill's mind was "made"; it had been cast in the Benthamite mould, and that mould it retained to the end. The teaching of his youth was to John Mill "the truth." His own views might, and did, expand and alter; but he could no more get rid of the essentials of his faith than a born and bred Calvinist like Carlyle could in reality shake off the feelings of Calvinism. The sentiment of a faith is a far stronger thing than its mere doctrines, and Mill never really cast off the sentiment of Benthamism.

His final adherence to the school in which he was trained was allied with that singular habit of overestimating the merits of his friends and teachers of which every page in his 'Autobiography' bears traces. That he should have thought "my father" to be one of those thinkers who could without being made ridiculous be compared for influence with Bentham or with Voltaire, is curious; but it is not so curious as that he should write of Mrs. Taylor as one "whose sensitive as well as her mental qualities would, with her gifts of feeling and imagination, have fitted her to be a consummate artist, as her fiery and tender soul and vigorous eloquence would certainly have made her a great orator, and her profound knowledge of human nature and discernment and sagacity in practical life would, in the times when such a *carrière* was open to women, have made her eminent among the rulers of mankind." A man who could calmly believe and write that a lady whom he admired and loved combined gifts and qualities which have never before been possessed in union by any human being, might with comparative reasonableness hold that James Mill was, "by his writings and his personal influence, a great centre of light to his generation"; and the pupil and son who so thought of his teacher and father was certain to remain true in the long run to lessons recommended to him by philosophic and parental authority.

When we ask why Mill clung tenaciously to the dogmas of Benthamism, we can hardly avoid answering that he was, with all his rare gifts and thirst for truth, a man "made or manufactured" in the Benthamite school, bound almost by the laws of his intellect to the creed in which he was trained. A singular passage of Mill's 'Autobiography' records that Carlyle at first hailed him as a "new mystic." "He soon found out," however, "that I was not another mystic, and when, for the sake of my own integrity, I wrote him a distinct profession of all those of my opinions which I knew he most disliked, he replied that the chief difference between us was that I 'was as yet consciously nothing of a mystic.'" Mill obviously recalls Carlyle's remark as an instance of mistaken criticism; yet, in fact, Carlyle displayed with regard to Mill that insight into individual character which is the marked trait of all his historical writing. There was something in Mill which, whether you call it mysticism or not, was of a totally different cast from his honestly-professed opinions. Between 1830 and 1840 he appeared, at least to others if not to himself, to be rapidly drifting away from the creed in which he was brought up. "Something led us," writes Caroline Fox, in reporting an interview with Carlyle, "to John Mill. 'Ah, poor fellow! he has had to get himself out of Benthamism, and all the emotions

and sufferings he has endured have helped him to thoughts that never entered Bentham's head. However, he is still too fond of demonstrating everything. If John Mill were to get up to heaven, he would hardly be content till he had made out how it all was.' " Friends and acquaintances like Carlyle and Sterling, who themselves shared to the full the reaction against the philosophy of the eighteenth century, underrated the tenacity with which Mill adhered, both from intellectual conviction and from the force of early association, to the mode of thought in which he had been trained. But Mill's own writings bear indirect testimony to the fact that at one period he deviated further than perhaps he himself perceived from his inherited creed. All his intimate friends (and this with a man of Mill's intense susceptibility to personal influence means much) were persons who had felt the sway of Coleridge. Such men as Maurice, Sterling, Carlyle were not likely to keep alive Mill's early Benthamism. His reverence for his father was, as Mill himself admits, mingled with a great want of sympathy with his father's views of life and of men. It no doubt is true that Mill "never wavered in the conviction that happiness is the test of all rules of conduct and the end of life." To have done so would have been to commit deliberate apostasy from the true Utilitarian faith. But when you combine this conviction with the further dogma, that the only chance of happiness "is to treat not happiness, but some end external to it, as the purpose of life," and have resolved to "let your self-consciousness, your scrutiny, your self-interrogation exhaust themselves on that," you have taken a step which, as far as the conduct of life goes, a good deal diminishes the practical importance of speculative Utilitarianism.

But Mill went a good deal further than is necessarily implied in the rule, that happiness, like health, must be sought for by forgetting the ultimate object of your pursuit. We now possess in Caroline Fox's 'Journals' a picture, or rather a faint sketch, of John Mill as he appeared to sympathetic and religious friends in the prime of his manhood. We now see that Mill, when between thirty and forty, was a very different person from the Utilitarian propagandist who in early youth went forth prepared to fight the battles of Utilitarianism with all the fervor of fanatical conviction, and was also a very different person from the thinker who between sixty and seventy looked back over his own life and attempted with perfect honesty, though with very imperfect self-knowledge, to give its story a kind of philosophic coherence which an existence influenced at every turn by circumstances, associations, and personal sympathies had never in reality possessed. Of Mill's sincerity no one who knows an honest man when he sees him can doubt; and Mill, when among the Quakers at Falmouth, used the language rather of religion than of philosophy. This passage from Caroline Fox's 'Journals' is worth a hundred pages of retrospective autobiography. She is writing of a conversation in which "Sterling was the chief speaker and Mill would occasionally throw in an idea." The only defect of the report is that the writer does not always distinguish with perfect clearness between the words of Sterling and those of Mill.

"There is also," she writes, "a guide to the path you should take in the intellectual and active world. Carlyle says: 'Try and you will find it.' Mill says: 'Avoid all that you prove by experience or intuition to be wrong, and you are safe; especially avoid the servile imitation of any other, be true to yourselves, find out your individuality, and live and act in the circle around it. Follow with earnestness the path into which it impels you, taking Reason for your safety-lamp and perpetually warring with In-

clination; then you will attain to that freedom which results only from obedience to right and reason, and that happiness which proves to be such, on retrospection. Every one has a part to perform whilst stationed here, and he must strive with enthusiasm to perform it. Every advance brings its own particular snares, either exciting to ambition or display, but in the darkest passages of human existence a Polar Star may be discovered, if earnestly sought after, which will guide the wanderer into the effulgence of light and truth. What there is in us that appears evil is, if thoroughly examined, either disproportioned or misdirected good, for our Maker has stamped his own image on everything that lives."

Side by side with this passage read Mill's letters to Robert Barclay Fox. They are in substance perhaps a little disappointing, but they show how much more near than might be supposed from the 'Autobiography' Mill at one time came to sharing the interests of religious Christians. He reads, for example, with some admiration the notes of a Welsh sermon—"a really admirable specimen of popular eloquence of a rude kind"; he criticises the view of the atonement propounded by the preacher in terms which might have been used by Maurice, say, or Kingsley:

"I know not how dangerous may be the ground on which I am treading, or how far the view of the Atonement which is taken by this poor preacher may be recognized by your society or by yourself; but surely a more Christianlike interpretation of that mystery is that which, believing that divine wisdom punishes the sinner for the sinner's sake, and not from an inherent necessity, more heathen than the heathen Nemesis, holds, as Coleridge did, that the sufferings of the Redeemer were (in accordance with the eternal laws on which this system of things is built) an indispensable means of bringing about that change in the hearts of sinners the want of which is the real and sole hindrance to the universal salvation of mankind."

Something, no doubt, must be allowed for the legitimate desire of a sympathetic nature to be in harmony with beloved friends. But we should be very unjust to Mill if we supposed him to have used, when in intercourse with Caroline Fox and her brother, language which he could employ only in a very non-natural sense. The fair explanation of the relation between him and his Quaker hosts is, that at one period of his life Mill's sympathies, if not his convictions, were enlisted in favor if not of Christian beliefs, yet assuredly of Christian aspirations. It is, indeed, pretty clear that during the years when he was in communication with his Falmouth friends, he was under the influence of something like repulsion from the associations of his early life. He was careful to explain to guests at his house that no one need fear to criticise Bentham in his presence. He expressed at least once something like regret at the discipline of his boyhood. "His father used to make him study ecclesiastical history before he was ten. This method of early application he would not recommend to others; in most cases it would not answer, and, where it does, the buoyancy of youth is entirely superseded by the maturity of manhood, and action is very likely to be merged in reflection. 'I never was a boy,' he said, 'never played at cricket; it is better to let nature have her own way.'"

Here we have the secret of one-half of Mill's speculative career. Nature was not allowed to have her own way, and nature, after her wont, avenged herself by all but driving John Mill into revolt against his father's teaching. Yet, oddly enough, the influence of James Mill in the long run triumphed; and so strange are the turns of character and of circumstances, that James Mill's victory was, it may well be suspected, in great measure due to the unconscious aid of the very person who first shook his dominion over his son. The facts we already know

of John Mill's life make one fact absolutely clear: the immense authority of his father yielded to the unbounded influence of Mrs. Taylor. As John Mill's devotion to her increased, his faith in his father declined. The natural result of this change of allegiance would, one might expect, be a complete alienation from James Mill's moral and political views. This result, however, did not follow. On the contrary, Mill's connection and marriage with Mrs. Taylor drew him off from the associates whose beliefs were fundamentally opposed to the dogmas in which he had been educated; and the lady who admittedly shared and influenced all Mill's later speculations aided and fostered that return toward early beliefs which is as natural and as usual as the return to first loves. This, at least, is the interpretation which, in the light of our further knowledge, a critic must place on more than one passage in the 'Autobiography.'

"In this third period," writes Mill, "... of my mental progress, which now went hand in hand with hers, my opinions gained equally in breadth and depth. . . . I had now completely turned back from what there had been of excess in my reaction against Benthamism. I had, at the height of that reaction, certainly become much more indulgent to the common opinions of society and the world, and more willing to be content with seconding the superficial improvement which had begun to take place in those common opinions than became one whose convictions, on so many points, differed fundamentally from them."

It is hardly necessary to trace further the extent to which the circumstances of Mill's life, and especially the authority of individuals whom he revered or loved, told on the formation of his speculative opinions. When once this is clearly perceived it is comparatively easy to understand how it is that theories expressed with all the clearness which can be given to philosophical exposition, and defended with all the acuteness of the most thoroughly trained logician of his age, exhibit, nevertheless, under an external appearance of perfect consistency, something very like a want of essential coherence. As, in short, you compare Mill's career with his system, the one explains the other. If Mill's system loses something of the impressiveness derived from unbroken intellectual consistency, he himself gains a good deal in human interest. "Dined at the Mills," writes Caroline Fox: "a biennial jubilee; John Mill in glorious spirits, too happy to enter much into deep things. He alluded to the indescribable change and growth he experienced when he made the discovery that what was right for others might not be right for him. Talked of life not being all fun, though there is a great deal of fun in it." Those who like to know what a great man really was may learn more from these few lines than from the whole elaborate "criticism" of Prof. Bain.

THOMAS À KEMPIS.

Thomas à Kempis and the Brothers of Common Life. By the Rev. S. Kettlewell. 2 vols. G. P. Putnam's Sons. 1882.

To the great majority of persons the name of Thomas à Kempis is familiar only as the author of the most remarkable religious book yet produced by any Christian writer. The 'Imitation of Christ' has, in its countless editions in all the principal tongues of Christendom, brought comfort and solace to thousands to whom its authorship was of no more consequence than that of the Bible itself. It is probably owing to this very fact, that the book contains really the whole man, that so few attempts have been made to present in greater detail the incidents of his life. And, indeed, a struggle with the two ample volumes before us leaves one with a deep sense of having spent many unprofitable hours.

The life of À Kempis may be said to have passed almost without events. It was the very purpose of the order of Brothers to which he belonged to avoid mingling actively with the people of the world, while avoiding at the same time those errors of ascetic fanaticism which had weakened and degraded the older monastic orders. À Kempis threw himself with the ardor of a faithful, devoted nature into the fulfilment of this purpose. It would, therefore, have been of interest if a biographer could have traced for us clearly and sharply the lines of his mental and moral development until it found expression in his book. Whoever seeks such enlightenment from the pages of Mr. Kettlewell will, we fear, be disappointed. The first gift of the true biographer—the power of setting forth individual character in strong relief against the background of the age in which he lived—is wanting in his case. There is evident throughout a desire to be edifying which has, we venture to say, doubled the size of the book and contributed nothing to our knowledge of the man or of his surroundings. Nothing is allowed to pass without a homily from the author, disturbing always the thread of narration and dimming the very impression it aims to deepen.

Perhaps some explanation of the disjointed character of the whole work may be found in the last paragraph of the preface, where the author speaks of his work as "filling up many vacant hours while disengaged from other duties." Apparently, the product of these vacant hours, distributed, as he says, over many years, has never been subjected to thorough revision, or else the bulk of his work was a matter of no account to the author. So far as we can judge, each chapter was finished once for all, and laid aside until, in composing new ones, much that had been once said was repeated. For instance, in speaking of Gerard Groot(e), the founder of the Brothers of Common Life, this name is endlessly defined as meaning Gerard the Great, and this in spite of the fact that Gerard's father is spoken of as Werner Groot.

The greater part of the first volume is occupied by the sketches of the earlier members of the Brotherhood of Common Life, written by Thomas himself—dreary eulogies in the manner of the 'Acta Sanctorum,' filled with miraculous stories which our author gravely discusses, and with endless pious exhortations, which lead him on to similar effort. The ideal of Gerard Groot is evidently his ideal also. He regrets, and does not conceal his regret, that the good old times of the pure monastic life are gone. It would do him good to see the English Church encouraging such devotion to lives of contemplation. Yet he does not hesitate to express his preference for these brethren over the then existing regular orders, and touches somewhat lightly on the fact that within a very few years the Brotherhood suffered the usual fate of such institutions and became a mere feeder to an order of Canons Regular which had been developed out of itself. In this order Thomas also took the vows in due season, and remained during his life at the monastery of St. Agnes, near Zwolle, and not far from his birthplace, Kempen. Here his life was one of almost unbroken quiet, devoted to spiritual contemplation, to the composition of religious treatises, and to the instruction of youth. Our author justly emphasizes the purely spiritual character of all Thomas's work, as distinguished from the dogmatic tone of much of the theological writing of the day. With him the life was everything, the faith so much a part of the life that it must be presumed as the only foundation and condition of right living.

Mr. Kettlewell's lack of systematic arrangement in his subject is well illustrated by his treatment of the whole question of the 'Imita-

tion.' Though he claims to have settled in another work the controversy as to the authorship, he might well have spared some portions of his too ample space at least to recapitulate the main points of so interesting a discussion; but the reader seeks in vain for any comprehensive account of the evidence for authenticity. Here and there, scattered through the whole book, are, however, brief hints of detached bits of proof, which simply confuse without explaining.

In the second volume we have chapters on the general condition of the Church in Europe, which give a fairly correct impression of the great movement of events, though, as we have suggested, the author's historical sense is none of the keenest. But most interesting and suggestive is the attempt to connect the name of Thomas à Kempis with the outbreak of the Reformation. The connecting link is here a man universally recognized as the immediate forerunner of Luther, John Wessel of Gröningen, and now shown with some certainty to have been greatly influenced by personal contact with A Kempis. Such connections of persons and events, however, are somewhat too attractive to be altogether safe subjects for speculation. In a sense we may regard every upright and pure mind during the Middle Ages as prefiguring in itself the ideas which the leaders of the Reformation strove to realize. In John Wessel we find distinctly proclaimed the primary doctrines of Luther, only advanced with less assurance and under less favorable circumstances. A Kempis, on the other hand, was too much a moralist and too little a dogmatist ever to set himself in opposition to dominant systems.

We cannot refuse to the author the praise of diligence and enthusiasm. He has visited the most important scenes of the activity of his hero, and attempts to give picturesqueness to his account by describing them at considerable length. The portraits of Thomas receive due attention; but here, again, we seek in vain for comprehensive statements as to genuineness and accuracy. Much of this indefiniteness of impression comes from a careless profusion of words—at least, carelessness is the charitable word for the multitude of verbal sins which meet one's eye on every page. A few examples, taken at random, will illustrate: "The civil power in a country have liberties which the ecclesiastical authority have no just right, morally or religiously, to interfere with." "The Bishop of Matiskonen-sis"!—although a note explains this person to be the Bishop of Macon. "The Duke of Savoy, called Felix V.," without a suggestion that this was his name as Pope. "I preach the Gospel with a plainness, that it might be comprehended by the humblest understanding." Luther is said to have written an introduction to the works of Wessel in 1552, six years after Luther's own death. The enormous number of such slips in a work purporting to represent the labor of a life cannot but shake our confidence in the method of its author. The book concludes with what Mr. Kettlewell might call "an account of the history of" his expedition to Zwolle, and of the edifying sensations produced by the sight of the skull and some small bones of the good man whose name has given to the little village its only title to celebrity.

HEINE ON GERMANY.

Religion and Philosophy in Germany. By Heinrich Heine. Translated by John Snodgrass. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. 1882.

To English readers Heine has hitherto been chiefly known as a great lyric poet. His songs

have become familiar through numerous translations, and through their union with the music of the greatest German composers. One need not be able to understand, but only to read, German to discover that, though others may have excelled him in variety of topic and depth of sentiment, no poet of this century has written such smooth, graceful, and musical verse as he. What Heine says of Goethe's songs applies equally well to his own: "They have a coquettish charm that is indescribable; the harmonious verses entwine themselves about the heart like a tenderly beloved one; the word embraces while the thought kisses you." But Heine's prose is hardly inferior in interest to his poetry. His short, crisp sentences, suggestive antitheses, vivid imagery, and refreshing clearness and directness, suggest the imaginative poet on every page. Johannes Scherr claims him as the greatest satirist the world has seen since Aristophanes, Cervantes, Rabelais, and Swift; and he certainly is the most subtle and genuine wit Germany has ever produced.

Nevertheless, one of those works in which his wit, irony, and critical acumen are most conspicuously displayed has had to wait almost half a century for an English translator—probably as retribution for the malicious and caustic remarks he was in the habit of making about England and the English, whom he did not greatly admire. The short treatise on 'Religion and Philosophy in Germany' originally appeared in the *Revue des Deux Mondes* in 1834, and in the following year at Hamburg in a German version. The admirable English translation now before us was made from the German, because the translator believes that it was originally written in that language. The reason given for this belief is that although Heine had a good command of the French language, it was his custom to secure the assistance of some prominent French author in preparing a French version of his German works, whence it is probable that he wrote the present work too in his mother tongue. The different readings in the various German and French editions, whenever of importance, are given in an appendix or in footnotes. That the first German edition was greatly mutilated by the censor is not to be wondered at in a country where even at the present day a week seldom passes in which some journalist of repute is not sent to prison for having vaguely questioned the absolute perfection and infallibility of Bismarck or Kaiser Wilhelm. As Heine states in a preface, the passages omitted chiefly related to political matters, his religious heterodoxy having been apparently found less objectionable than his political. The consequence was that the aspect of the book was considerably changed; as in place of having a "patriotic democratic tendency," it now "recalled scholastic theological polemics." Heine believed that the German MS. had been destroyed in the great Hamburg conflagration of 1842; but it was found again, and the book as now printed correctly reflects the original views and language of its author. In the preface to which we have just referred, Heine ostensibly retracts the anti-religious sentiments expressed in the body of the book. It has been said of him that he would have suffered the direst consequences rather than suppress a witticism that pricked his tongue; and the present case shows how far he was ready to carry a frivolous joke.

Heine's object in writing this book was to give French readers a clear idea of the general drift of German thought from Luther to Hegel, and thus indirectly to correct some of the numerous wrong notions set afloat among them by Madame de Staël's work on Germany. It is not an erudite, systematic treatise on German philosophy and religion, adapted to the wants of college

students; but it gives a picturesque bird's-eye view of its subject, and abounds in brilliant *aperçus* and incisive criticisms that are often more suggestive and edifying than whole chapters of dry and barren historical facts. It has been briefly dismissed by some critics as mere "pyrotechnics of wit," or as a book whose heroes are chiefly used as "pegs whereon the writer may hang his jests," somewhat like the manner in which Italian opera composers utilize their librettos to show off their melodies; but this is hardly a just verdict. Wit and sarcasm permeate the whole book, it is true, but the wit always "clings to the thought" and grows out of the subject; and no subject so readily yields itself to sarcastic treatment as German metaphysics. Call it a comic history of German philosophy if you like, but remember that in writing a history of German speculation it is often *difficile satiram non scribere*.

In noting Heine's estimate of the different German philosophers, nothing will be so apt to surprise the reader as to find that he calls Hegel the greatest German philosopher since Leibnitz, and places him even above Kant. The reason for this strange judgment probably lies in the fact that he personally attended Hegel's lectures in Berlin, and there caught the fever from the large number of deluded students who imagined in their enthusiasm that where there was so much metaphysical smoke there must also be much hidden light. His admiration for Hegel, however, does not prevent him from quoting the story of Hegel's deathbed observation: "Only one man has understood me; . . . and even he did not understand me." Heine evidently did not study Hegel with sufficient care to discover, what Trendelenburg and Ueberweg have pointed out, that the proposition on which Hegel's whole card-house is built (the identity of *Sein* and *Nichts*) is one of the most absurd instances of logical sophistry on record. The pages devoted to Fichte are very amusing reading. He compares his philosophy—which requires the Ego to observe its own operations during the act of thinking—to the monkey who seated itself on the hearth before a copper kettle cooking its own tail, because it was of the opinion that "the true art of cooking consists not merely in the objective act of cooking, but also in the subjective consciousness of the process of cooking." Although Heine recognizes the immense negative value of Kant's philosophy in so far as it destroyed philosophical dogmatism and brought the sacraments to a dying God, he cannot forgive him for having by his 'Critique of Practical Reason' neutralized, or at least weakened, the effect of his 'Critique of Pure Reason.' He either wrote the latter work on the principle of the student who smashed all the lamps in the street so as to get an opportunity to deliver a forcible lecture on the absolute necessity of lamps, or else he wrote the 'Critique of Practical Reason' out of consideration for his poor old servant, Lampe, who looked with consternation on the slaughter of the "ontological, cosmological, and physico-theological bodyguards," and who could never be happy without a God and a belief in immortality. Heine claims that Kant did not destroy the "ontological proof," which is beyond question the weakest of all. He does not explain the "how so," but the wherefore lies in his statement that it is equally valid for deism and for pantheism; and Heine was a pantheist. Goethe himself did not express greater admiration for Spinoza than Heine; and Heine, after characterizing pantheism in admirable language, takes great care to point out that it is not to be identified with atheism. He did not live long enough to read Schopenhauer's caustic remark that Spinoza's method of identifying nature with God was very much like

the proceeding of the monarch who wished to equalize all his subjects without hurting the feelings of the aristocracy, and accordingly arranged the difficulty by conferring the title of nobility on the whole populace.

Pantheism is one of the "leading-motives" that run through the whole book; but the leading-motive, which permeates not only this work, but much of Heine's poetry and other writings, is that the essence of Christianity lies in one idea—the annihilation of the life of the senses. "You demand simple modes of dress, austere morals, and unspiced pleasures; we, on the contrary, desire nectar and ambrosia, purple mantles, costly perfumes, luxury and splendor, dances of laughing nymphs, music and comedies." Catholicism, although it looked upon the flesh as being of the devil, allowed the enjoyment of sensuous delights, provided they were regarded as forbidden fruit and atoned for by confession and contributions to the Church funds. Protestantism was a reaction against this inconsistency, and, like all reactions, it went to the opposite extreme. Next to his poetic genius, it is his championship of the healthy life of the senses that establishes Heine's claims to our admiration; and if in his personal conduct he was carried too far by the doctrine he was advocating, this does not impair the value and beauty of such a work as this fragmentary treatise on 'Religion and Philosophy in Germany.' In conclusion, we cannot refrain from calling especial attention to the passages on Luther and Lessing, both of which are such perfect specimens of suggestive criticism and elegant style that every student of literature ought to know them by heart. Nothing certainly could be better than the following:

"Lessing was the living criticism of his time, and his whole life was a polemic. . . . As he himself avowed, conflict was necessary to his mental development. He resembled the legendary Norman who inherited the talents, the skill, and the vigor of the enemies slain by him in combat. . . . Yea, he struck off many a skull out of pure wantonness, and then was malicious enough to pick it up again and to show the public that it was quite empty. . . . By his polemic many a name has been snatched from well-merited oblivion. He has enveloped with the most spiritual irony, with the most delicious humor, not a few paltry scribblers, who are preserved for all future time in Lessing's works, like insects imbedded in a piece of amber. In the act of putting his adversaries to death he has bestowed on them immortality."

Bentley. By R. C. Jebb. [English Men of Letters.] Harpers, 1882.

RICHARD BENTLEY has a well-deserved place on the list of eminent Englishmen. The field of his labor lies indeed apart from the interest and the knowledge of most people, yet it is one in which intellectual ability can be trained and exercised as really and as thoroughly as in almost any other. If the power to grasp and retain in mind a vast number of facts, to select and combine those needed for a purpose, however widely scattered they may be, to penetrate the meaning of incidental statements and draw sound inferences from them, to weigh testimony and detect error with marvellous intuition—if the power to do these things attests intellectual ability, Bentley certainly possessed a high degree of it. Repeated testimony has been given by the leaders of scholarship in Holland and Germany to his being in their view the greatest man in classical learning that England has yet produced, and that, too, in spite of his having left so little finished work behind him. It is hardly possible to pursue critical study of classical antiquity far in any line without coming upon traces of his influence. If you study Homer, you are met at once by the digamma, which Bentley discovered

for the modern world. If you study the history of the Greek drama, you find reference to Bentley's suggestions and combinations in the Phalaris essay. If you study Terence, you find Bentley quoted as the first to get hold of the key to his metre. If you study Kallimachos, you find Bentley's name among the restorers of his text. And so it is in Horace and Manilius and Plautus, and in Aristophanes and Nikander, and in varying degrees as to many other authors. Much of his wealth of matter lies scattered about in odd places, in contributions to other people's books, or in marginal notes on what he was reading. His own books have to be studied rather than read, because he is continually running off from his subject to correct an error in some other ancient author or to bring together items of tradition and set them in their true form and relation so as to establish some neglected fact. An excellent illustration is given by Professor Jebb (p. 124) from the letter to Mill. This indiscriminate pouring forth of learning seems to have been due partly to his own mental character, partly to the need of the time. He saw, as is well said by Jebb (p. 216), "that the very foundations on which they (his predecessors in scholarship) built—the classical books themselves—must be rendered sound, if the edifice was to be upheld or completed."

There have been three or four accounts of Bentley's life published, but this of Mr. Jebb's is not only the most complete and satisfactory for its size, but in every way an excellent piece of work. He is evidently in sympathy with his subject, and has thoroughly studied it. It is a lively subject, too, for Bentley was by no means a mere solitary student, the only events in whose life are a new book or a new theory. He had his literary quarrels, chief among which was the great Phalaris controversy, involving apparently the scholarly reputation of the two universities, calling out squibs and pamphlets from the literary men and wits of the day, known to modern readers by a chapter in D'Israeli's 'Quarrels of Authors' and by a brilliant passage in Macaulay's essay on Sir William Temple. Then came his long struggle as Master of Trinity with the Senior Fellows, which went on in one form or another for twenty-eight years, came before the courts and the Privy Council, and was variously influenced by the changes in the fortunes of political parties. This is not a pleasant part of Bentley's life. It shows him in a worse light than any other part of his history, and we heartily wish we could omit the traits it reveals from our conception of the great man. But it certainly does add variety and excitement to his story. The great triumph of Bentley's career, that by which he will be longest and most widely known, is his Phalaris dissertation. The wit, the overwhelming learning, the absolute mastery of the subject, make this a work of permanent value and interest even to modern scholars, and justify Forson's phrase, "the immortal dissertation." It seems as if it must have utterly crushed the other side, and yet, as Mr. Jebb clearly shows, there was not critical learning enough in England for a hundred years to make it generally recognized on which side the victory lay.

Studies of Modern Mind and Character at Several European Epochs. By John Wilson. London: Longmans, Green & Co. 1881. 8vo, pp. 444.

MR. WILSON'S volume of 'Studies' consists of fourteen essays upon different subjects of modern history and literature, most of which have already appeared in periodicals—chiefly the *Quarterly Review*. We have articles upon Guicciardini, Bruno, and Galileo, Swift, Junius, and Voltaire; then follows a series upon recent French

history, followed by an article entitled "Bismarck, Prussia, and Pan-Teutonism."

Of the earlier group, that upon Galileo is perhaps the most interesting, or at least timely. The process of Galileo has received so much light of late years from the new evidence that has been discovered in the Archives of the Vatican that we hoped to find here—what the English public would be very glad to have—a fair and complete summing up of the case as it now stands, after the labors of Martin, Berti, Gebler, etc. Unfortunately Mr. Wilson's object was a different one—to couple Galileo with Bruno, and compare their scientific attitude and the treatment they respectively received; there is not room, therefore, for a complete presentation of Galileo's case. It takes for granted more previous knowledge on the subject than most readers possess. Enough of detail is given, however, to support the conclusion at which, we believe, most well-informed persons have arrived. Galileo was not put to the torture, as has been sometimes asserted, nor was he subjected to any severe physical punishment; he was nevertheless threatened with the torture. Neither, if we understand aright, was he, in 1633, when summoned before the Inquisition, put upon trial for his opinions, but *for contumacy*, for publishing in 1632 opinions which in 1616 he had been forbidden to teach, and had promised not to teach. Mr. Wilson says (p. 65):

"What Rome did to Galileo is now before the world in its minutest circumstances. Let her have full credit for what, by special grace and favor, she left undone. An infirm old man of seventy, stricken with grievous maladies, whose labors and discoveries had done honor to Italy in every realm of Europe, was neither buried at the stake, nor thrown into the dungeons of the Holy Office, nor stretched upon the rack."

So, too, Rome did not, perhaps, formally condemn his scientific opinions; she did, nevertheless, what she could to crush them.

More than half the volume is made up of the eight articles upon the French revolutions, empires, and wars, including one upon the land question in France, in which an opinion is expressed unfavorable to the existing system. These articles present a tolerably complete sketch of the history of France during the last hundred years, and, being based upon fresh and authentic information, can be read with great profit. With regard to the causes of the "Terror"—really, perhaps, the most vital question in dealing with the French Revolution—he presents the view elaborated so fully by M. Taine in his last volumes, that the government of the Jacobins was a usurpation by a small minority: "that there was in Paris, as well as in the departments, an enormous preponderance of force, as well as of opinion, ready to array itself against the Jacobin populace-tyranny. But that force was without organization and without leaders" (p. 245). At an earlier stage he shows that the Revolution could have been easily held in hand by a competent executive: "As Dumont says, the one thing needful in 1789 was a King of firm and decided character" (p. 227). Back of it all, however, were causes at work, not merely in France itself, but in Europe, in the "joint policy of perfidy and violence in Eastern Europe" pursued by Frederic the Great and Catherine of Russia. "Anarchy in Europe—international anarchy produced by the lawless will of her rulers—preceded anarchy in France, and rendered Europe defenceless against French invasion" (p. 275). There is no more conspicuous example in history of the punishment that crimes bring upon themselves than the connection pointed out by Von Sybel between the second partition of Poland in 1792 and the successes of the French Revolution in the same year. While the allies were jealously

watching each other and their destined prey, they presented but a half hearted resistance to the enthusiastic legions of France. The whole of this article, "Through Anarchy to Caesarism," is forcible and just.

Extracts from the Writings of W. M. Thackeray, chiefly Philosophical and Reflective. Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott & Co. 1882.

THIS volume differs from most collections of extracts in the fact that it can be read through without weariness—a strong proof of the indestructible virtue of Thackeray's style. The extracts are really minute essays on the topics about which Thackeray was fond of moralizing by the way—men, women, marriage, hypocrisy, humbug, love, friendship, old age and youth, the way of the world, *vanitas vanitatum*—subjects which preachers, poets, and moralists have from the beginning of the world discussed, and which in modern times have in great measure fallen into the hands of novelists.

When Thackeray first came before the world, as the author of 'Vanity Fair,' the impression he made upon the English public was more that of a cynical moralist than of a master of fiction. Subsequently, it became gradually apparent to the dull, honest Anglo-Saxon mind that his philosophy, cynical though it might be, was not Mephistophelian; that he seriously admired and respected the cardinal virtues, though he did not believe that they were very common in the world, nor so invariably united with a high degree of intelligence as some students of human nature like to believe. When it was once admitted that he was not simply sneering at all good and manly things, it was but a step to exalt him into the position of a great preacher, who told the world the truth about itself, but chiefly because he so loved whatever was pure and lovely and of good report that he was forced to lift up his voice against the humbug and hypocrisy and shams with which he found it obscured and disfigured. As time went on, he got to take this view of himself, and to preach more and more and play the cynic less and less; and it must be confessed that in this process his style lost most of its freshness and pungency.

In looking over these extracts, one is most struck by the fact that there was really no novelty in his philosophy of life at all, and that the real reason why it attracted so much attention at the outset, and caused so much dispute, was the perfection of Thackeray's style, the delicacy of his humor, his power as a story-teller, and his lifelike development of character—in other words, his purely literary merits. It was these that made a view of life that was in fact very old seem to have the force of startling novelty. His cynicism, too, was a sort of surprise to the novel-reading public, because it came in the midst of an age of sentimental admiration of human nature, and sharply recalled the world to one of the great central facts of existence—that hypocrisy and deceit play an important part in it. The generation to which Thackeray belonged was determined at all hazards to make out that human life was a blessing and human history a tale of progress. To him, on the contrary, whatever might be the truth about human progress, human life was essentially unhappy, its hopes and ambitions delusive, its joys ephemeral, its sorrows lasting, and its meaning—except in the light of a supernatural revelation—like a tale told to an idiot, full of sound and fury, signifying nothing. This view of life may be all wrong, and it was believed to be all wrong by most of the readers of 'Vanity Fair' when it came out. At that time a taste for Thackeray was a sort of test of the disposition of a reader. To enjoy 'Vanity Fair'—or, at any rate, to en-

joy it to the point of sympathy and admiration—was supposed to be an indication of a worldly, cynical spirit. Most people who wept over Nancy Sikes or the sufferings of Smike, looked upon the unhappiness of life as something which had its root in inequality of condition, or misfortune, or poverty, and looked forward to a time, not so far off either, when it would disappear like a disease the cure for which has at length been discovered, and leave nothing but kindness, love, and undiluted bliss in the world. Thackeray, as we have said, was no believer in this optimism. All lovers of him will find this volume worth looking over, as it presents his "philosophy" in a concise form.

Autobiography of the Rev. Luther Lee, D.D. Phillips & Hunt.

THIS is the story of a Methodist preacher, now an octogenarian, who won distinction by his efforts to redeem the Church he loved from the defilement of slavery. His account of the early fall of that Church into the embrace of the slave power, and of its long and desperate subservience thereto; of the efforts of the bishops and others in authority to overawe and silence every manifestation of anti-slavery sentiment; and of the proscription and persecution visited upon those who sought to redeem their beloved Zion from blood-guiltiness, is fitted to astonish the present generation. Dr. Lee was among those who were driven by these persecutions to secede from the Church of their first love, and to organize another under the name of the "Wesleyan Connection." This secession failed to disintegrate the old Church in the Northern States only because it speedily brought the leaders, in part at least, to their senses. The iron rule of the bishops was relaxed, the preachers were no longer forbidden to discuss the subject, and in 1844 the General Conference actually called a bishop to account for being a slaveholder. The Southern secession followed, but a large portion of slave territory was still left within the jurisdiction of the Northern Church, where slavery was tolerated exactly as before, until the system was destroyed by the Civil War. After the Church had been thus purified of slavery, less by any action of its own than by the wage of battle, Dr. Lee and others of the Wesleyan body once more united with it.

That Dr. Lee's account of the struggle is substantially accurate there is no room for doubt. If he sometimes oversteps the bounds of modesty in what he says of his own part in the controversy, his narrative is yet of considerable historic value, showing as it does how much was done for the support of slavery by one of the largest of American churches. But while his familiarity with Methodist history saves him from falling into any serious errors on that subject, he is less fortunate in his attempt to give an account of the division of 1839 among the Abolitionists of Massachusetts. He was in the State but a short time, and his associations there were not favorable to a just apprehension of the matters in controversy. When he says that Garrison, Phillips, and others of their school "vehemently opposed all political action against slavery," he falls into an error at once so grave and so absurd that we can only attribute it to the forgetfulness of age. As to the importance and necessity of political action for the abolition of slavery, there was never any division of sentiment among Abolitionists in Massachusetts or elsewhere. The mooted question concerned only the form of such action. Mr. Garrison and his friends believed it unwise, in the then state of the cause, for Abolitionists to organize a political party. They thought the inevitable tendency of such a measure would be to cripple the

work of moral agitation, to relieve the churches of their distress by drawing the movement almost exclusively into a political channel, and thus to postpone the crisis in which genuine political action might be expected to give effect to the moral sentiment of the country against slavery. Again, Dr. Lee falls into a palpable anachronism when he says that Garrison, Phillips, and others, in 1839, "declared it a sin to vote under the pro-slavery Constitution of the United States." It was not until five years after this that the anti-slavery societies led by Garrison arrived at this conclusion. We do not so much wonder at these mistakes of Dr. Lee when we observe that he makes "Josiah" Quincy chairman of a meeting of reformers in the Chardon Street Chapel in Boston. We notice also an error of the types, which makes Dr. Lee deliver a speech before the American Anti-Slavery Society, in 1882, a year and a half before that Society was organized.

P. Ovidii Nasonis Ibis: ex novis codicibus edidit, scholia vetera, commentarium cum prolegomenis, appendice, indice, addidit R. Ellis, Coll. Trin. ap. Oxon. Socius. Oxford: Clarendon Press. 1881.

It may be in bad taste to admire Ovid too much. Men have been found to call him a poor poet. It was so in Bentley's time, it is so to-day. He has not the pulsing life of Catullus, the tenderness, the idyllic sweetness of Tibullus, the intimate touch of Propertius. He has a fatal facility in poetry that reminds one of Cicero in prose. One resents so much aptness. Ovid's art is so thorough that some critics would call it a knack, and by these he is accounted an artist as a *chef* is counted an artist. To them his skill is not so much that of the painter's deft finger as that of the juggler's nimble wrist. He is too much in love with his own cleverness—an old charge. He rings the changes on the same theme; he takes with both hands, and not only from the Greeks. They were fair game then as the French are fair game now for dramatists, and Germans fair game for scholars. But he borrows from his Roman brethren, and those who delight in the silent criticism of parallel columns can get some satisfaction out of Ovid, especially as his enemies say that he does not improve on what he borrows. He is too fond of conceits, of points; and he mars his best passages by quibbling comparisons. He has little depth of feeling; he is as frivolous as his verse is light. His tripping hexameters, his well-cadenced pentameters symbolize the airy man of the world. And yet, in the face of every possible objection and criticism, it may be confidently maintained that Ovid had genius enough for half a dozen poets; that he borrowed not because he was poor, but because he was rich; and that he had a great deal of Roman sap in him. There was no fight in Propertius: Ovid would and did fight on occasion, and one has not far to seek in his poems in order to find manly, ringing verses. If he seems to pule in his later poems, we should remember the misery of his lot, the contrast to him between Tomi and Rome. Ovid must have been a thoroughly companionable man, whereas Catullus, though charming, was dangerous, and Propertius was moody and sullen. We find fault with Cicero, with Ovid, with Voltaire, and we end by coming back to them.

Apart from the rest of Ovid's poems stands the "Ibis"—apart, as he himself says, both in its bitterness and in its obscurity; so far apart that the Ovidian authorship has been questioned. Ovid had passed fifty before he wrote a harsh line against any one. Fifty is an age at which the wine of life, as the Greek

said, is apt to turn to vinegar; and yet how few men can lay claim to so long a course of good-nature! When the poet was exiled, his own familiar friend lifted up his heel against him, gave tongue against him in public places, and tortured the loving wife to whom Ovid's thoughts turned constantly from his dreary exile. Up to that time, the poet says, his muse had harmed no one but himself. Now even his good-nature was turned to gall, and he learned to curse. That he had to get a master to teach him how to curse might be considered a proof of the native sweetness of his temper; but, unfortunately, the Romans always had to look for Greek models, even if they looked for them to surpass them. Ovid's model was the "Ibis" of Callimachus. Callimachus, a clever and pragmatic pedant-poet, was incensed with Apollonius, afterward called the Rhodian, for daring to contravene his canons of criticism, and especially that famous canon, "A big book is a big bore"; and, in order to punish his adversary, poured out on his head a vial of wrath into which he had distilled a whole herbary of curses gathered from the most secret recesses of Greek mythology. The title itself is a puzzle, as the ibis was highly revered among the Egyptians, although the popular ornithology of the period told unsavory tales about "Father John," as he is now affectionately called by the dwellers in those parts. The object of this poem—which belonged to the class of *Dirce*—was twofold: it was to blast by its malignity, and to abash by its learning, so that Apollonius would be hurt as much by what he did not understand as by what he did.

The "Ibis" of Callimachus was a short poem, Mr. Ellis thinks, and Ovid enlarged it by numerous additions borrowed from other writings of the same Callimachus and from the stock which he used in the "Metamorphoses." After the introduction, which is very vigorous and has more directness than is Ovid's wont, the mythological cursing begins, and we are introduced to a chamber of horrors and a Newgate calendar carefully made up from the dismal endings and wicked deeds of heroes and heroines. The page bristles with proper names. Even when the stories to which the poet alludes are sufficiently well known, the characters are often given in their genealogical relations, and the most familiar myths are thrown into the form of riddles. It is a catechism without any answer. Everybody knows Orestes, the Danaides, Ino, Æsculapius, and Ulysses. Is everybody so ready with the father of Tisamenus, the daughters-in-law of Ægyptus, the maternal aunt of Bacchus, the great-grandson of Saturn, and the son-in-law of Icarus? But most of the allusions do not lie on the surface, and some are so recondite that they have baffled the keen scent of all the scholars who have tried to track them out, from the days of Salvaing, that marvellous student who, in his twentieth year, mastered some of the worst problems of the "Ibis," down to Mr. Ellis, who has brought to his task better scholia, better MSS., besides vast erudition and rare acumen, proved in far higher and wider regions of classical literature.

Mr. Ellis has solved some of the hitherto insoluble puzzles, and his commentary is a treasure-house of learning. Few can read the original without some degree of mortification, and it is for this reason that Niebuhr recommends the study of it "to any scholar who wishes to ascertain whether he is thoroughly conversant with poetical mythology and ancient history." All will find in Mr. Ellis's notes a store of rare and curious learning worthy of the massive erudition of an earlier day. Of course detailed criticism of an edition of so peculiar a poem would be out of place here, but praise and all praise is some-

times dispraise: and it must be said that Mr. Ellis is occasionally too completely at the mercy of his own erudition and acumen, and that he bewilders his readers by the variety of his suggestions. Strange to say, Mr. Ellis, with all his learning, seems to have fallen into the popular error of confounding the Homeric and the Vergilian tradition of Hector's end. This only shows how overmastering the influence of Vergil is. Preller, in his "Greek Mythology," with his Homer presumably open before him, makes precisely the same mistake. Ovid says (v. 333, 334): "Vel qui, quæ fuerat tutatus moenia sæpe, corpore lustravit non diuturna suo"; and yet Mr. Ellis refers to Homer (Il. 24, 16, 755), in which Hector's body is dragged, not round Troy, but round the tomb of Patroclus. Vergil followed a different tradition, which seems to have been present to Sophocles (Ajax, 1029), and is referred to in Curtius, 4, 6. Salvaing makes no allusion to the Homeric passage.

In the "Prolegomena" Mr. Ellis has discussed with ample learning the occasion of the "Ibis" of Ovid, although he has not reached a definite conclusion as to the person at whom all this malediction is aimed. He has discussed the "Ibis" of Callimachus, the meaning of the title, and the character of the bird; the sources of Ovid's poem, the arrangement of the fables, the special allusions to Egypt—which, by the way, he has hardly made out satisfactorily; the extent to which the "Ibis" was read in after times, the MSS., and the scholia. There are several excursus, and there is an index of words, due to the loving care of Mr. Ellis's sister. There is no compromise about the book. It is intended for scholars, and will be prized by scholars as a classical edition of one of the most curious monuments of antique literature.

Le Château de Versailles: Histoire et description. By L. Dussieux. 2 vols. 8vo, xi-512, 472 pp. Versailles: Bernard; New York: J. W. Bouton. 1881.

THE Tower of London, the story of which the late Hepworth Dixon told rhetorically in a series of volumes, is the only building erected in the last thousand years which in historic importance and personal interest can vie with the Château of Versailles, the story of which M. Dussieux is now the first to tell fully and satisfactorily. The Tower of London is the older building of the two, and has had more of a drum-and-trumpet history. But high treason is now a thing of the past; for nearly two centuries the Tower has been slowly passing into the domain of romance; and we are inclined to doubt whether that veracious traveller, Mr. Martin Chuzzlewit, would now meet any one in these United States who believes that the Queen of England habitually resides in the Tower of London in preference to Buckingham Palace, Balmoral, or Osborne. The Château of Versailles, on the contrary, has kept its place in the very centre of power in France, with only occasional intermissions, for nearly two hundred and fifty years. It is only yesterday that the Government of the French Republic moved from Versailles to Paris; only ninety-odd years since the Third Estate met in the Jeu de Paume at Versailles. It is a little over a century ago since the simply-clad Benjamin Franklin moved amid the gaudy throng of courtiers, and won over to the support of the American cause the ally by whose aid was made possible the success we have been celebrating at Yorktown. And during the century which preceded Franklin's appearance in France, the Château was the most important building in existence, for in it centred the life of French royalty

for three reigns, ending with Louis XVI.'s departure for Paris.

It may even be asserted that the Château of Versailles had a greater influence on the Revolution than the Bastille itself. The prison was little more than the symbol of arbitrary power, and comparatively few ever felt the weight of its chains, while the palace, with its prodigal profusion, was the cause of a great part of the public misery. One starts at reading of the vast sums squandered on the women who ruled the rulers of France. From the figures given by M. Dussieux it seems that Louis XIV. alone spent about \$100,000,000 on Versailles, not counting the fortunes expended on Clagny (for Madame de Montespan) and on Marly (to which no one came without the permission of Madame de Maintenon). Nor does this sum include the unpaid labor of the thousands of peasants who were forced to work in *corvées*, and who died by hundreds from disease caused by the unhealthy nature of the soil.

It was on May 6, 1682, that Louis XIV. definitely took up his residence at Versailles, and it was in 1689 that La Bruyère wrote his famous description of the poor peasants, and it was in 1698 that Vauban declared it certain that the enormous taxes were unbearable, and that the roads in the country and the streets of the towns were full of beggars driven from their homes by hunger and nakedness. On the same page (i., 178) that M. Dussieux cites these facts he gives us a glimpse of the richness and extravagance of the King and court at the wedding of the Duke of Burgundy in 1697, which recalls a dream of the Arabian Nights in the profusion of its gold and velvet and precious stones. Louis XIV. died, and Madame de Maintenon, as the wittlings nicknamed her, soon followed, and Louis XV. sat on the throne of his fathers. In time came Madame de Pompadour, and after a little the house in the Parc-aux-Cerfs. Just what Madame de Pompadour cost it is impossible to say exactly, although we know she received in nineteen years not less than \$24,000,000 directly. In less than five years Madame Dubarry received more than \$8,000,000. The recurrence of these names of favorites calls forth the remark that the history of Versailles is really a history of woman's influence on royalty in France. It was to Versailles that Louis XIII. invited Mlle. de Lafayette, an invitation declined because the young lady saw the pitfalls before her and escaped her royal lover by taking the veil. It was at Versailles that Louis XIV. gave to Mlle. de la Vallière the splendid fêtes at which Molière produced his "Princesse d'Élide," the first three acts of "Tartufe," and the "Impromptu de Versailles." It was there that Madame de Maintenon succeeded to her friend Madame de Montespan. It was there that the Duchess of Châteauroux and her sisters ruled the fickle heart of Louis XV.; and it was there that Madame de Pompadour and Madame Dubarry brought the monarchy to still greater shame and degradation. It was at Versailles that Louis XVI. led a decent life, amusing himself with locksmithing, while the Comte d'Artois was learning to dance on the tight-rope (il., 354), and while Marie Antoinette, with her wonted imprudence, was referring to herself as Venus and to her husband and King as Vulcan. It was at Versailles that Marie Antoinette revolted against the elaborate ceremonial of monotonous etiquette and earned the deadly hatred of the nobility—a hatred which found vent in innuendo, scandal, and slander, and which the lower orders only imitated from their betters when they rose against the "Austrian woman" and her husband.

This hurried glance along the history which M. Dussieux has told in detail must suffice at least to suggest the interest of the narrative and

the exceeding richness of the materials he has had at his command. In reality, M. Dussieux's book is closely akin to what we Americans know as a local history; and his method is a model. In his first part, devoted to the Château itself, we have an account of its foundation and of its gradual elaboration, the description of every important room, including a sketch of the chief events which may have happened in it, with ample quotations from the original authorities, memoirs, letters, etc. This first part is, indeed, the main body of the book, filling the whole of the first volume and a third of the second. In a second and a third part are considered the dependencies and the parks and gardens; and in a fourth are described the royal houses, Marly, Clagny, and the Trianon. Then, in a short concluding part, is given a brief account of the town which had grown up by the side of the Château. There are ten engravings of the Château at different times, and of the chief objects of interest; noticeable is a double-page etching of the *Théâtre des petits-appartements*, with Madame de Pompadour on its stage. There are twenty-two plans. M. Dussieux, who is an honorary professor at the military school of St. Cyr, understands the necessity of accuracy, and at his hands the history of Versailles appears for the first time freed from legend and error, and founded securely on actual investigation. In conjunction with the late M. Soulié, kindly remembered by all students of Molière, M. Dussieux had edited the 'Journal' of Dangeau (1694-1720) and the 'Mémoires' of the Duke de Luynes (1735-1758), from which he has derived much of the information

in the present work. A history of the royal Château was a task which M. Soulié had hoped to accomplish, and for which his minute historical knowledge, his keen critical sense, and his wide acquaintance with the Château (of the museum of which he was keeper) admirably qualified him; but if anything could reconcile us to the loss of M. Soulié's work, it would be the execution of his project as satisfactorily and as fully as by M. Dussieux.

Treatise on the Game of Twenty Questions.
Henry Holt & Co. 1882.

LOVERS of this interesting game will gladly read the aptly-bound little book which so brightly discusses and so clearly explains it. They will enjoy this reminder of the keen questionings, subtle evasions, and wonderful clairvoyance which Twenty Questions can evoke from any quick-witted circle. The rules given are clear and explicit, and well adapted to preserve harmony among players of a game which often severely tries the temper even of good-natured people. The suggestions as to improvements in methods of playing and in regard to different varieties of the game are good, though we see the author makes no mention of the kind in which one person (not being captain of the party) for a time does all the questioning and guessing. One objection to the game, played so formally as the rules here given demand, is, that such exactitude diminishes fun and frolic. Still, without it, the cry of unfairness is often raised. The specimen games are pretty fair illustrations, though they do not make apparent the brilliancy

of the game. The book will be widely acceptable.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Across the Atlantic. A. D. F. Randolph & Co. \$1.
American College Song-Book. Chicago: Orville Brewer & Co.
Avenarius, F. Deutsche Lyrik der Gegenwart, seit 1850. E. Westermann & Co.
Blake, Mary E. Poems. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. \$1.25.
California as It Is. By Seventy Leading Editors and Authors of the Golden State. San Francisco Call Co. 50 cents.
Chester, Henrietta M. Russia, Past and Present. Adapted from the German. With maps and illustrations. E. & J. B. Young & Co. \$1.50.
Corning, Dr. J. L. Carotid Compression and Brain Rest. A. D. F. Randolph & Co. 40 cents.
Coursen, Charlotte H., and Crosby, Edith R. From Day-break to Twilight. G. P. Putnam's Sons. 50 cents.
Loomis, L. C. The Index Guide to Travel and Art-Study in Europe. Charles Scribner's Sons. \$3.50.
Mac-Ghniomhartha Fhinn. The Youthful Exploits of Fionn. New York Society for the Preservation of the Irish Language.
Masson, G. Dictionary of the French Language. Macmillan & Co. \$1.
Milman, Bishop. Mtslav; or, The Conversion of Pomerania. E. & J. B. Young & Co. \$1.15.
Mills, C. D. B. Pebbles, Pearls, and Gems of the Orient. Boston: George H. Ellis.
Osgood's Pocket Guide to Europe. Boston: J. R. Osgood & Co.
Pollock, W. H. Songs and Rhymes: English and French. London: Remington & Co.
Raimund, G. From Hand to Hand: a Novel. Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott & Co. \$1.50.
Rolfé, W. J. Shakespeare's Tragedy of Timon of Athens. Harper & Bros.
Sand, George. Correspondance. 1812-1876. F. W. Christen.
Sheldon, H. N. The Law of Subrogation. Boston: Soule & Bugbee.
Skeat, W. W. An Etymological Dictionary of the English Language. Macmillan & Co. \$2.50.
Skeat, W. W. A Concise Etymological Dictionary of the English Language. Harper & Bros.
Spurgeon, C. E. The Treasury of David. Vol. II. Funk & Wagnalls. \$2.
Trollope, A. Marion Fay. Harper's Franklin Square Library. 20 cents.
Tucker-Macchetta, Blanche R. The Home-Life of Henry W. Longfellow. G. W. Carleton & Co.
Weeks, L. H. Among the Azores. Boston: J. R. Osgood & Co. \$1.50.
Zola, E. Pot-Bouillie. Philadelphia: T. B. Peterson & Bros. 75 cents.

HENRY HOLT & Co.

HAVE READY:

America and France.

The Influence of the United States on France in the XVIIIth Century. By Lewis Rosenthal. \$2.50.

SERJEANT BALLANTINE'S

Some Experiences of a Barrister's Life.

Large 12mo, with portrait, \$3.50.

The Revolt of Man.

16mo (Leisure-Hour Series), \$1.

READY SATURDAY:

Life of Wm. Penn.

By R. J. Burdette (of the Burlington Hawkeye). 16mo (Lives of American Worthies Series), \$1.25.

Yesterday.

An American Novel. 16mo (Leisure-Hour Series), \$1.

Objetos de arte antique Espanol.

Two Antique Spanish Treasure-Jars, of a rich blue-and-white porcelain, with iron lids secured by curious locks and guarded key-holes, and of undoubted genuineness, unique specimens in this country.

Old Rugs, of colors most exquisite and delicate, of native manufacture, the first ever brought here. Toledo Arms, Bull-fighters' Jackets, heavy with ornamentation, Falenques, and Furniture.

Just brought over by

JOHN CHADWICK.

Household Art-Rooms, 3 E. Nineteenth Street.

JAMES POTT,

Church Publisher, Bookseller & Importer

Hours with the Bible;

Or, The Scriptures in the Light of Modern Discovery and Knowledge. By the Rev. Cunningham Geikie, D.D. 12mo, cloth, with illustrations, \$1.50 each.

JUST ISSUED.

Vol. IV. FROM REHOBAM TO HEZEKIAH.

Vol. I. From Creation to Patriarchs.

Vol. II. From Moses to Judges.

Vol. III. From Samson to Solomon.

Uniform with Vol. IV. Each volume complete in itself.

12 ASTOR PLACE, NEW YORK.

A Series of

TEN GEOLOGICAL PLATES,

27½ x 36 inches, containing Fifteen Diagrams designed for use in Schools and Colleges. Edited by A. S. Packard, Jr., Professor of Geology and Zoology, Brown University, and Editor of 'The American Naturalist,' author of 'Zoology,' etc.

The diagrams are to be accompanied by a Text-Book, FIRST LESSONS IN GEOLOGY, 128 pages, 8vo, by Prof. Packard.

The series of diagrams are arranged in the form of landscapes, and contain a number of original restorations of American, Silurian, and Devonian animals, especially Carboniferous, Jurassic, and Tertiary vertebrate animals, by Prof. E. D. Cope, H. F. Osborn, and the Editor; with restorations in the text.

Price for the ten diagrams and book, postage paid, \$6. Address all orders to THE PROVIDENCE LITHOGRAPH CO., Providence, R. I.

Wadsworth Bros. & Howland,

IMPORTERS AND DEALERS IN

ARTISTS' MATERIALS

And Architects' and Engineers' Supplies of every description,
84 WASHINGTON STREET, BOSTON.
Catalogues free on application.

DAVID G. FRANCIS,

17 Astor Place, Eighth Street, New York,

DEALER IN NEW AND OLD BOOKS.

PRICED CATALOGUES, containing valuable standard literature, as well as rare, curious, and out-of-the-way books, are issued from time to time, and will be forwarded to any address.

BOOKS PURCHASED.

JUST PUBLISHED.

NOTED FRENCH TRIALS:

Impostors and Adventurers.

By HORACE W. FULLER, of the Suffolk Bar.

Price, cloth or cartridge-paper boards, \$1, net.

SOULE & BUGBEE,

37 Court Street, Boston.

BOOKS relating to America, its History, general and local, particularly the latter; Lives of Americans, obscure and illustrious, the former always preferred; Books throwing light, or claiming to throw light, on the misty origin and weird, romantic life of the Red Men—their ethnology, their tongues, their stone, metal, and earthen relics of past ages; Genealogy; Criminal Trials; The rude Rhymes illustrating the slow but sure growth of American Poetry; Narratives of Soldiers and Pioneers; and other odd, curious, and out-of-the-way things peculiar to America. These, with a willingness to sell them at fair prices, constitute the specialty of CHARLES L. WOODWARD, 78 Nassau Street, New York. Catalogues for whoever wants them.

IN any family, whether large or small, but especially where the number of children is large, a record of the constitutional peculiarities of each one, and the whole course of its physical development in sickness and in health, is certain to be instructive and may prove invaluable. Such a record is Professor J. B. Foussagrives's 'Mother's Register,' consisting of a series of tables scientifically arranged for brief and convenient entries. A separate volume for boys and for girls. Price, post-paid, 75 cents per volume, or \$1.25 for two volumes. Address Publisher of the Nation.

The Portable Bookcase

(PATENTED)

In Ebony, Cherry, Black Walnut, or Ash. Solid and Permanent. No room where Books are used complete without it.

For descriptive circular and price-list, address the sole makers, LOCKWOOD, BROOKS & Co., 381 Washington St., Boston.

UNMOUNTED PHOTOGRAPHS

OF ANCIENT AND MODERN WORKS OF ART, embracing reproductions of famous original paintings, sculpture, architecture, etc. Price, cabinet size, \$1.50 per doz. Send 6-cent stamp for catalogue and supplement of 7500 subjects. SOULE PHOTOGRAPH CO. (successors to John P. Soule), Publishers, 338 Washington St. Boston, Mass.

NOW READY.

A NEW EDITION OF

Diseases of the Skin;

A Practical Treatise on Diseases of the Skin. By Louis A. Duhring, M.D., author of 'An Atlas of Skin Diseases,' etc. Third, and thoroughly revised edition. Illustrated. 8vo, extra cloth, \$6.

"We regard it as the most complete and satisfactory work on dermatology in the English language, and most heartily commend it to the practitioner and the student."—*Boston Medical and Surgical Journal*.
 "It is the best work on the topic, in our opinion, in the language, and to the American physician deserves to supersede all others."—*Medical and Surgical Reporter*.

JOHN DARBY'S NEW WORK.

Brushland.

By the author of 'John Darby Hours,' 'Odd Hours of a Physician,' etc. 12mo, extra cloth, \$1 25.

* For sale by all booksellers, or will be sent by mail, postage prepaid, on receipt of the price by

J. B. LIPPINCOTT & CO., Publishers,
715 and 717 Market Street, Philadelphia.

*"HAMMOCK STORIES."**TWO DAYS.*

A BOY'S ROMANCE.
BY ONE OF THE BOYS.

"Just at the age twixt boy and youth,
When thought is speech, and speech is truth."
Cloth, Decorated, 60 cents.

SURF.

A SUMMER PILGRIMAGE.

Author, SAUL WRIGHT.

"Four congenial knights of the quill decide to take a summer pilgrimage, and they embark on board the 'Lady of the Lake.' . . . There are little sketches here and there, somewhat of the Mark Twain style, which would do no discredit to that humorist. After most heartily enjoying—yes, luxuriating in his narrative, as we close the book with a sigh of regret that there is no more of it, and a sigh of sympathetic pleasure at the happiness of dear old 'Sid' and the lovely 'divinity in pink,' we mentally exclaim, 'It's Saul Wright!'"—*Boston Home Journal*.
Cloth, \$1; paper, 50 cents.

For sale by all Booksellers, or mailed by

FORDS, HOWARD & HULBERT,
27 Park Place, New York.

BANGS & CO.,

739 and 741 Broadway, New York,

Will Sell on the 27th and 28th of June

THE COLLECTION OF

Prehistoric Stone and Flint Implements

OF THE LATE

PROF. J. GRIER RALSTON,

OF NORRISTOWN, PA.

Collection on exhibition at the Auction Room, Monday, June 26.

Collectors may procure catalogues of the Auctioneers, or by addressing W. ELLIOT WOODWARD, Roxbury, Mass.

HEWINS & HOLLIS,

47 TEMPLE PLACE, BOSTON.

We import and sell at retail the best Men's Furnishings, carefully and personally selected from the best manufacturers in England, France, and Scotland.

We solicit orders by mail, and will import to special order any merchandise in our line not in our stock.

HEWINS & HOLLIS.

JUST PUBLISHED.

Sonnets of Three Centuries.

A Representative Collection of the Best English Sonnets from Spenser to the Present Day. Embodying many inedited and hitherto unpublished examples. The whole arranged Chronologically and accompanied by Illustrative Notes and a Copious Historical and Bibliographical Introduction. By T. HALL CAINE.

"The beautiful volume before us is, beyond all doubt, the most satisfactory collection of sonnets that has yet appeared."—*Athenaeum*.

"The get-up of this book, as to paper, type, and size, is almost ideal."—*Notes and Queries*.

Small 4to, on antique paper, cloth, uncut.

Sent, post-paid, on receipt of \$4 50, by the sole agents for the United States,

W. B. CLARKE & CARRUTH,
Boston, Mass.

Volume by the Author of 'The Leavenworth Case.'

Defense of the Bride,

AND OTHER POEMS.

By Anna Katharine Green, author of 'The Leavenworth Case.' 16mo, cloth, \$1.

"Written with a spirit and force that are impressive."—*Congregationalist*.

"These poems have the ring of true metal. In them a refined imagination, a passionate depth of emotion, and a rare sweetness find utterance."—*Providence Journal*.

"It seems to me that Miss Green has successfully revived the old art of ballad writing."—*Rossiter Johnson*.

For sale by all dealers, and sent paid, on receipt of price, by the publishers.

G. P. PUTNAM'S SONS,

27 and 29 West Twenty-third Street, New York.

English Books,

DUTY-PAID, AT 33 CENTS TO THE SHILLING.

The Treasury Circular of April 22, 1881, virtually stopping the free-of-duty importation by mail of English books, we beg to offer our services to book-buyers for the importation of English books in weekly shipments from London, having the best facilities and over thirty years' experience.

Our monthly London Book-List is mailed for 12 cents per year to any address.

Weekly Importations from Leipzig and Paris.

B. WESTERMANN & CO.,

838 Broadway, New York.

NEW ENGLISH BOOKS

At 25 Cents to the Shilling,

Sent, post-paid, direct from London, on receipt of price of publication in bankers' draft, currency, or post-office order.

The recent Custom-House and Post-Office Circulars permit all printed matter to be mailed to the United States with safety and economy, and the duty, if any, to be collected from addresses.

Stevens's Priced List of nearly 500 English, French, and German Periodicals, with fuller Announcement for supplying books by mail or freight, is distributed gratuitously by every public library in the United States, by Tice & Lynch, 34½ Pine Street, New York, and B. F. STEVENS, American Library and Literary Agent, 4 Trafalgar Square, Charing Cross, London, England.

Johns Hopkins University,

BALTIMORE, MARYLAND.

Programmes of the courses offered to University students for the next academic year may be obtained on application.

KOUNTZE BROTHERS,
BANKERS,

No. 120 BROADWAY (EQUITABLE BUILDING), NEW YORK.

DEPOSITS RECEIVED,

subject to check at sight, and interest allowed on balances.

Government and other bonds and investment securities bought and sold on commission.
Telegraphic transfers made to London and to various places in the United States.

Bills drawn on the Union Bank of London.

LETTERS OF CREDIT

and Circular Notes issued for the use of travellers in all parts of the world.

KIDDER, PEABODY & CO.,

1 Nassau St., N. Y.; 113 Devonshire St., Boston.

EXCHANGE AND LETTERS OF CREDIT ON GREAT BRITAIN AND THE CONTINENT.

Correspondents:

BARING BROTHERS & Co., London;

PERIER FRERES & Co., Paris;

MENDELSSOHN & Co., Berlin.

PRINCE & WHITELY,

No. 64 Broadway, New York.

(Branch Office, 180 Fifth Avenue.)

All classes of Railway and Mining Stocks bought and sold on Commission.

Private telegraph-wires to Philadelphia, Wilmington, Baltimore, Washington, Boston, Bridgeport, and New Haven.

A. P. TURNER & CO.,

207 WALNUT PLACE, PHILADELPHIA,

DEALERS IN RAILWAY BONDS.

Orders executed at all the exchanges. Correspondence solicited.

NOTICE.—No. 3.—The First National Bank of Youngstown, located at Youngstown, in the State of Ohio, is closing up its affairs. All note-holders and other creditors of said Association are therefore hereby notified to present the notes and other claims against the Association for payment.

WM. H. BALDWIN, Cashier.

YOUNGSTOWN, O., May 15, 1882.

No. 2,603.—The above Bank, No. 3, goes into liquidation on account of the expiration of its charter. The First National Bank of Youngstown, Ohio, No. 2,603, with a capital of \$500,000 and surplus of \$150,000, has been organized, and begins business May 16, 1882.

WM. H. BALDWIN, Cashier.

YOUNGSTOWN, O., May 16, 1882.

NOTICE.—The First National Bank of Woodstock, located at Woodstock, in the State of Illinois, is closing up its affairs. All note-holders and other creditors of said Association, are therefore hereby notified to present the notes and other claims against the Association for payment.

JOHN J. MURPHY, Cashier.

Dated April 30, 1882.

THE FIRST NATIONAL BANK OF MILWAUKEE,

No. 2,750,

Has been organized (and is in full operation) to take the place of the First National Bank of Milwaukee, No. 64, now in liquidation, as appears by the following

NOTICE:

The First National Bank of Milwaukee, located in Milwaukee, in the State of Wisconsin, is closing up its affairs. All note-holders and other creditors of said Association are therefore hereby notified to present the notes and other claims against the Association for payment.

Dated June 1, 1882.

H. H. CAMP, Pres.

*THE WESTERN**Farm Mortgage Co.,*

LAWRENCE, KANSAS.

FIRST MORTGAGE LOANS

Upon improved productive farms in the best localities in the West negotiated for banks, colleges, estates, and private individuals. Coupon Bonds. Interest and principal paid on day of maturity at the THIRD NATIONAL BANK in NEW YORK CITY. Funds promptly placed. Large experience. No losses. Investors compelled to take no land. No delays in payment of interest. Only the very choicest loans accepted. Full information given to those seeking SAFE AND PROFITABLE INVESTMENTS. Send for circular, references, and sample documents.

F. M. PERKINS, Pres.

L. H. PERKINS, Sec.

J. T. WARNE, Vice-Pres.

C. W. GILLET, Treas.

N. F. HART, Auditor.

THOMPSON & ODELL Publishers of
Orchestra and Band Music.

Catalogues sent free on application.

THOMPSON & ODELL,

177 Washington St., Boston Mass.

Printed by the Evening Post Job Printing Office, N. Y.

